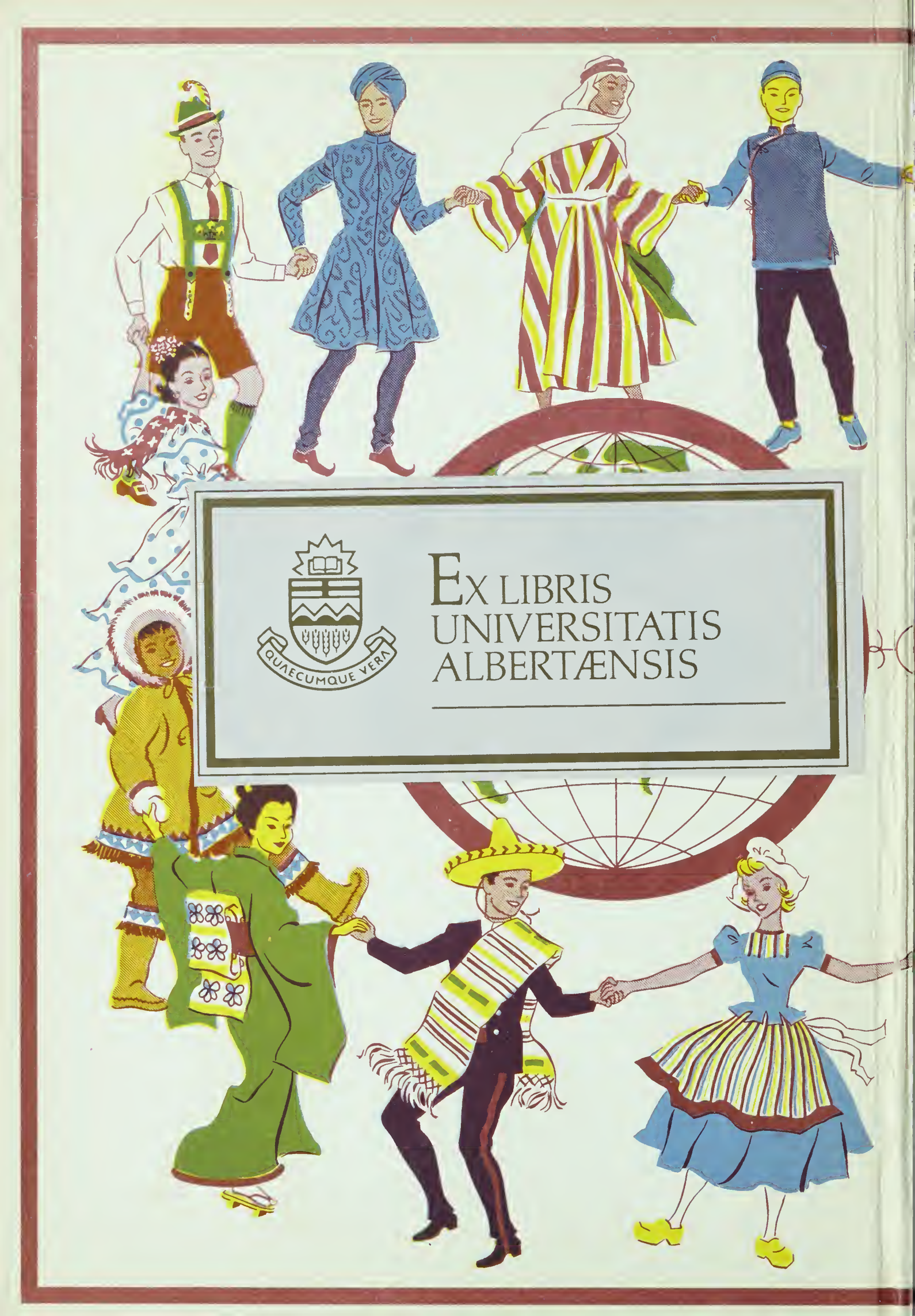
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SPOTLIGHT ON CANADA SERIES



CANADA AND THE WORLD


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CANADA AND THE WORLD

SPOTLIGHT ON CANADA SERIES

CANADA AND THE COMMONWEALTH

CANADA AND THE AMERICAS

CANADA AND THE WORLD

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SPOTLIGHT ON CANADA SERIES

CANADA and THE WORLD

Approved for use in the Schools of Ontario

TORONTO—VANCOUVER
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AUTHORS' PREFACE

In planning this work the authors have tried to keep in mind both the needs of students who will leave school at the end of Grade 10 and those who will continue on to higher grades. For both groups, this volume tries to make clear that today Canadians cannot afford to ignore the world beyond our national boundaries; that we do indeed live in 'one world', although a deeply divided one; and that, while there are no easy solutions to its problems, we must try constantly and realistically to make every gain possible.

In dealing with Canada and the world, the book uses both a spatial or geographic approach and a temporal or historic one in its various units, stressing one or the other as the topic demands, in the belief that the two approaches should be fitted together, since man must be studied both in relation to his environment and in respect to the changes that time may bring in these relations. It should also be noted that conscious use has been made of repetition as a teaching device. The book begins with an 'overview', introducing themes to be developed later, and closes with a summary of major world problems. In the units between an element of repetition is used at certain stages, both to review material covered in previous years, and to fit known material into new contexts and reveal new perspectives.

While no separate units are provided to cover Canada's relationships with the Commonwealth or with the Americas, subjects that have been dealt with in previous grades, a considerable amount of reference is made to them at appropriate stages in the text; for example, as regards the leading place of the United States in in-

ternational affairs today, the role of the Latin American bloc at the United Nations, the present high significance of Britain in Europe, or that of the Commonwealth in Asia, Africa and the Pacific.

The present volume is a companion to *Canada and the Commonwealth* and *Canada and the Americas,* which were published earlier in this series, and designed to lead up to *Canada and the World.* In each work both history and geography have been treated, and the same general methods have been kept in mind in all three. These were first explained in the preface to *Canada and the Commonwealth,* and this introductory note may therefore repeat part of the introduction to that volume.

"No book can be a substitute for good teaching, but it should be an aid, and in this connection certain principles have been followed throughout. While each of the units, for example, has been made complete, they are interrelated and the desirability of integration in the book as a whole has been kept in view. Similarly, the illustrations, though they provide decoration and will interest or even amuse, have been thought of primarily in terms of their teaching value. In particular the pictograms and charts sum up main points in sections of the text, and aid in the quick understanding of basic factual material. The maps are a similar aid to quick understanding, and are not intended to take the place of more detailed maps, which are essential. The book is meant to encourage an interest in additional supplementary material of all sorts. The questions and suggestions at the ends of the chapters have been framed with the aim of encouraging wider reading, and suggesting activities which are within the practical range of teachers in the classroom."

The present work has been designed to give what the authors believe to be an integrated treatment of the vast theme 'Canada and the Modern World'. In so doing, it covers the ground mapped out in the *Ontario Outline of Courses for Experimental Use* for Grade 10, although in somewhat different order and in several

more units. For teachers in Ontario, however, who prefer to follow the organization of the field set forth in the Experimental Curriculum, it is suggested that the material in the book be treated as follows:

Curriculum Unit I:	Use sections 1 and 2 of Unit One as an introduction. Then study Unit Five. The rest of Unit One may be used for enrichment. Unit Four might also be assigned here as a review specifically on Canada.
Curriculum Unit II:	Unit Six
Curriculum Unit III:	Unit Eight
Curriculum Unit IV:	Unit Seven
Curriculum Unit V:	Unit Nine
Curriculum Unit VI:	Unit Two, sections 3, 4 and 5, and Unit Three, sections 1 and 2. The rest of these two units may be used for enrichment.
Curriculum Unit VII:	Unit Ten, sections 1, 2 and 4. Section 3 might be used for enrichment. Section 5 of Unit Two might also be reviewed here.
Curriculum Unit VIII:	Unit Eleven, sections 1, 2 and 4, and Unit Twelve, sections 1, 2 and 3. The rest of Units Eleven and Twelve may be used for enrichment.

CONTENTS

1. SURVEY

UNIT ONE

Spotlight on the World

1. THE CANADIAN OUTLOOK, TODAY AND YESTERDAY 1
2. HOW CANADIANS GREW AWARE OF THE WORLD 4
3. OUR MODERN AGE OF GRAVE WORLD PROBLEMS 10
4. THE SHORTCOMINGS OF OUR WORLD VIEW 19

2. THE GREAT WORLD COMMUNITY

UNIT TWO

The Globe We Live On

1. THE VAST UNIVERSE — AND MAN 27
2. THE MOULDING OF THE EARTH 31
3. THE EARLY AGES OF MANKIND 35
4. MAN AND GEOGRAPHY 41
5. WORLD GEOGRAPHY TODAY 57

UNIT THREE

The Growth of World Civilization

1. POPULATING THE CONTINENTS 69
2. THE EARLIEST CIVILIZATIONS 77
3. THE RISE OF EUROPE 85
4. EUROPEAN CIVILIZATION SPREADS ABOUT THE WORLD 94
5. THE GROWTH OF MODERN NATIONS 102

UNIT FOUR

The Modern Canadian Nation

1. THE MOULDING OF A NATION 118
2. GEOGRAPHIC AND ECONOMIC INFLUENCES ON CANADA 124
3. THE CANADIAN PEOPLE 131
4. TWO CANADIAN WAYS OF LIFE 137
5. THE PATTERNS OF CANADIAN DEMOCRACY 147

UNIT FIVE

Canada, a Member of the World Community

1. CANADA'S PLACE IN THE WORLD TODAY 160
2. CANADA BECOMES A MEMBER OF THE WORLD COMMUNITY OF NATIONS 168
3. CANADA TAKES PART IN THE WORLD COMMUNITY 178
4. CANADA'S SHARE IN MANY WORLD ACTIVITIES 186

3. OUR WORLD NEIGHBOURS

UNIT SIX

Canada Looks Across the Atlantic at Europe

1. CLOSE CONTACTS ACROSS THE ATLANTIC 195
2. THE VARIED REALM OF EUROPE 198
3. THE ACHIEVEMENTS OF EUROPE'S CIVILIZATION 211
4. EUROPE TODAY 225

UNIT SEVEN

Canada Looks Across the Atlantic at the Middle East and Africa

1. NORTH AFRICA AND THE MIDDLE EAST 241
2. NATIONALISM IN NORTH AFRICA AND THE MIDDLE EAST TODAY 250
3. CENTRAL AND SOUTH AFRICA 264
4. RACE AND NATIONALISM IN CENTRAL AND SOUTH AFRICA 271

UNIT EIGHT

Canada Looks Across the Arctic

1. THE OPENING OF CANADA'S FAR NORTH 280
2. CANADA'S LARGEST ARCTIC NEIGHBOUR: THE SOVIET UNION 290
3. THE STORY OF RUSSIA 298
4. RUSSIAN COMMUNISM AND ITS EXPANSION 308

UNIT NINE

Canada Looks Across the Pacific to Asia

1. OUR NEW INTEREST IN ASIAN LANDS 323
2. ASIAN LANDS AND PEOPLES 329
3. ASIA'S CONTRIBUTIONS TO THE WORLD 341
4. ASIA IN THE PRESENT AGE 352

CANADA CHANGES WITH A CHANGING WORLD

CANADA 1900

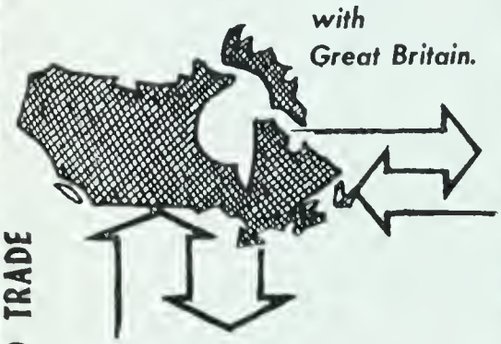
HAD SEVEN PROVINCES AND LESS THAN SIX MILLION PEOPLE

The "barren" North



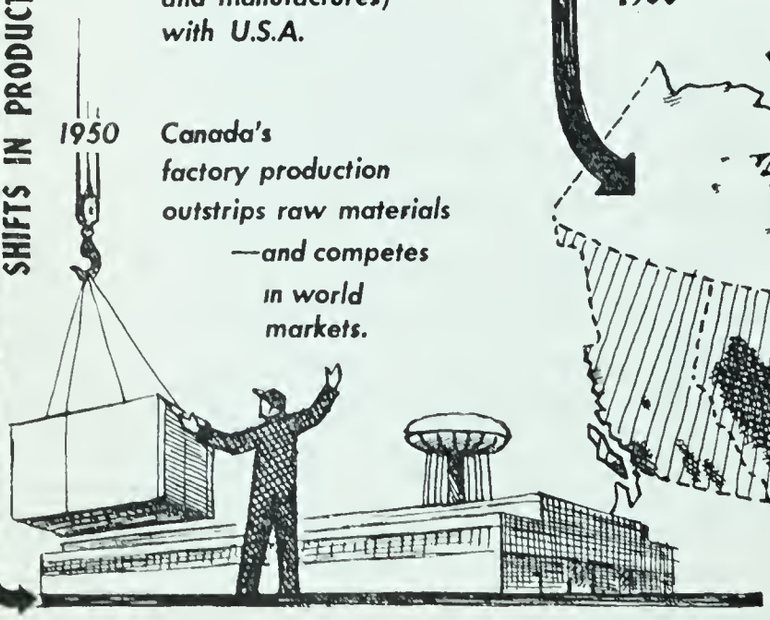
1900, Canadians busy producing raw materials chiefly for British market.

1900, Bulk of trade (wheat, lumber, etc., for manufactures) with Great Britain.



1950 Bulk of trade (wood products metals for fruits, vegetables and manufactures) with U.S.A.

1950 Canada's factory production outstrips raw materials —and competes in world markets.



SHIFTS IN PRODUCTION AND TRADE

GROWTH IN TERRITORY AND POPULATION



WORLD WAR I
Canada automatically at war when Great Britain declares war on Germany.

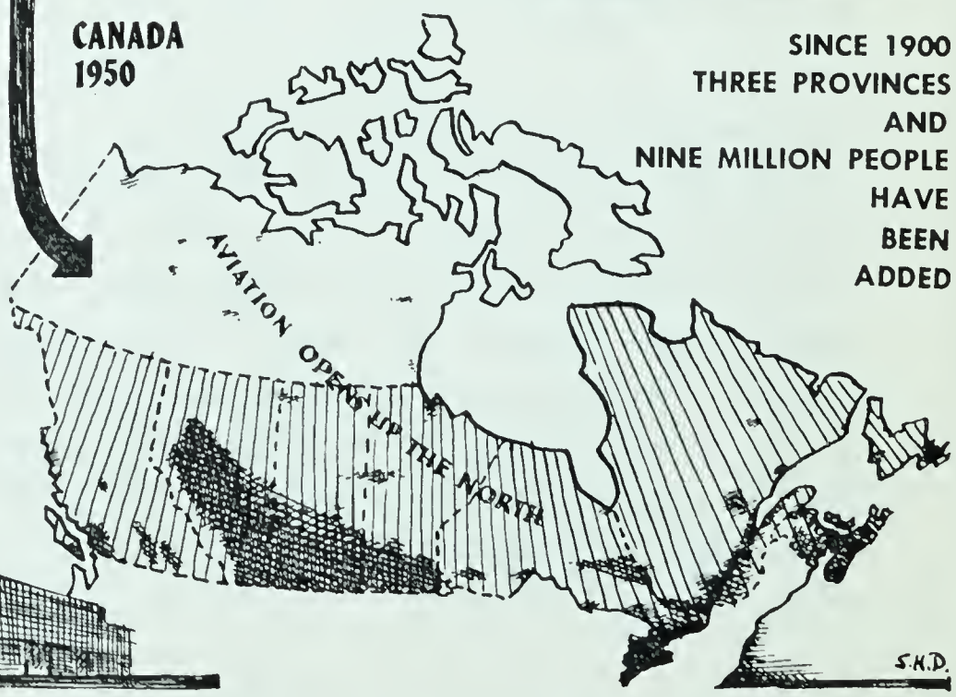
WORLD WAR II
Canada declares war as a sovereign nation.



GROWTH TO NATIONHOOD IN A WORLD AT WAR

CANADA 1950

SINCE 1900 THREE PROVINCES AND NINE MILLION PEOPLE HAVE BEEN ADDED



Yet it is only in recent years that this awareness of the world has developed in Canada. To grasp that fact we need only compare the Canadian outlook of 1900 with that of the present day. At the dawn of the twentieth century Canadians were dazzled by the exciting possibilities of their own land, and their thoughts were turned inward. Canada was a country with many beckoning frontiers to conquer. Lengthy railways were being built; vast areas of prairie grass lands were being torn up to produce golden grain. The mineral resources of the Shield and Rockies were just being tapped, while Canada's forest wealth seemed unlimited. A constant flow of new settlers from many countries speeded the clearing of land, and from the land came new vigour to hasten the growth of villages, of towns, and of new industries. No wonder, then, that Canada had her back to the world, busy as she was with her own internal developments and seemingly endless possibilities. There was almost no time for anything else.

Yet in that day Canadians could largely ignore the rest of the world without too much danger. Canada was still a British colony, and was at peace with her one close neighbour, the United States. The powerful British navy gave protection on the seas that divided her from other lands. Her products were sold mainly to Britain and the United States, and she had few dealings with the world beyond. Hence it is not surprising that Canadian interest in affairs outside Canada was mainly limited to events in these two countries, for Canadians had very little contact with any other.

But half a century later most Canadians had realized that they could no longer remain aloof from world affairs. The shock of two world wars had shown that no nation could hope to stand apart, and had made plain the need for co-operation with other countries in a world organization to keep the peace in future. Canada had fought beside other nations against would-be conquerors and foes of democracy, and had paid a heavy price to help preserve freedom. But the fight for freedom was by no means finished. At the end of the Second World War Canadians realized

that they had to work closely with other freedom-loving peoples or again risk losing their priceless heritage of liberty. And the growing division of the world into two unfriendly camps—composed of those countries which had adopted communism and those which rejected it — caused Canadian leaders to bind their country by treaties with other nations to defend the peace and freedom of the non-communist western world.

By the middle of the twentieth century, moreover, Canada had experienced an amazing economic growth, in manufacturing as well as in the production of many raw materials. She was producing more manufactured goods, more raw materials and more foodstuffs than her markets at home could even begin to absorb. The surplus must be sold abroad to bring prosperity. Canada's trade had steadily broadened out, and her dealings with other nations had greatly increased. Great changes therefore, had turned Canada's outlook beyond her own good earth to many other peoples and many other lands. And it could never turn back.

2. How Canadians Grew Aware of the World

(a) Canada Enters World Affairs. Today our interest in the outside world is constantly maintained by modern communications that tie all parts of the globe together. News, ideas, and people can move rapidly across great distances, and the world seems a much smaller and better-known place than it did to our grandparents. And so present-day Canadians cannot help being exposed to a steady stream of information about world events and world geography. Although much of this information is intended primarily for adults, children receive and retain a great deal of it. They are much better informed than their parents were when they were children, and are a good deal more familiar with world maps. Strange place names challenge their curiosity, and they frequently ask questions about them — Trieste, Cambodia, Thule, the island of Yap, for instance!

Every day new names appear in the newspapers or are mentioned in newsreels and broadcasts, from the latest Prime Minister of France to the Majlis, from the Mau Mau to EDC and NATO. From all parts of the world there comes a continual flow of reports on events, as well as opinions and explanations concerning these happenings. There are radio 'news round-ups' from London or Washington, press dispatches from Berlin or Tokyo, bulletins from United Nations commissions in India or Africa. Never before have we Canadians received so much information about other parts of the world, nor have we ever needed more thorough understanding of them.

This growing flow of world news, and the increasing study of world maps over the years has steadily built up our realization of how fully Canada is involved in international affairs. The maps make plain that in an age of air travel the Atlantic and Pacific may no longer serve as ocean shields to keep enemies away from the Americas. Indeed, our empty Arctic 'backyard' now lies on the air highways of the world. Nor could Canadians ignore the outside world if they wanted to, and think only of the riches of their own land and their still vast frontiers. World news, world events come crowding in on us. Canada is linked inescapably with the well-being of the rest of the world, and whatever occurs elsewhere is almost certain to have some influence on Canada.

Recognition of Canada's involvement in world events, however, developed only gradually as our country grew from colony to nation. As a leading British colony, Canada took a major part in colonial and imperial conferences from at least 1900 on, but Britain spoke for the Empire in relations with foreign nations. Then in 1914 came the First World War, which not only brought Canada into the midst of a great world struggle for the first time but sharply turned her gaze outward. And at the end of that war, moreover, thanks largely to her strong effort in the conflict, she was given a seat of her own at the peace conference of 1919, and so began to take part in international affairs, signing the peace

treaty herself, and being admitted in her own right as a member of the new League of Nations.

Canada now was starting to deal with foreign nations herself, and this fact was reflected in the growing interest of Canadians in world problems. League of Nations societies sprang up across the country to discuss the work of the new world organizations. In 1928 the Canadian Institute of International Affairs was formed to spread information on foreign affairs among the thinking public. This was another sign that Canadians outside the government as well as those within were interested in working out a foreign policy for their country; that is, the principles and lines of action that a nation should follow in meeting world questions.

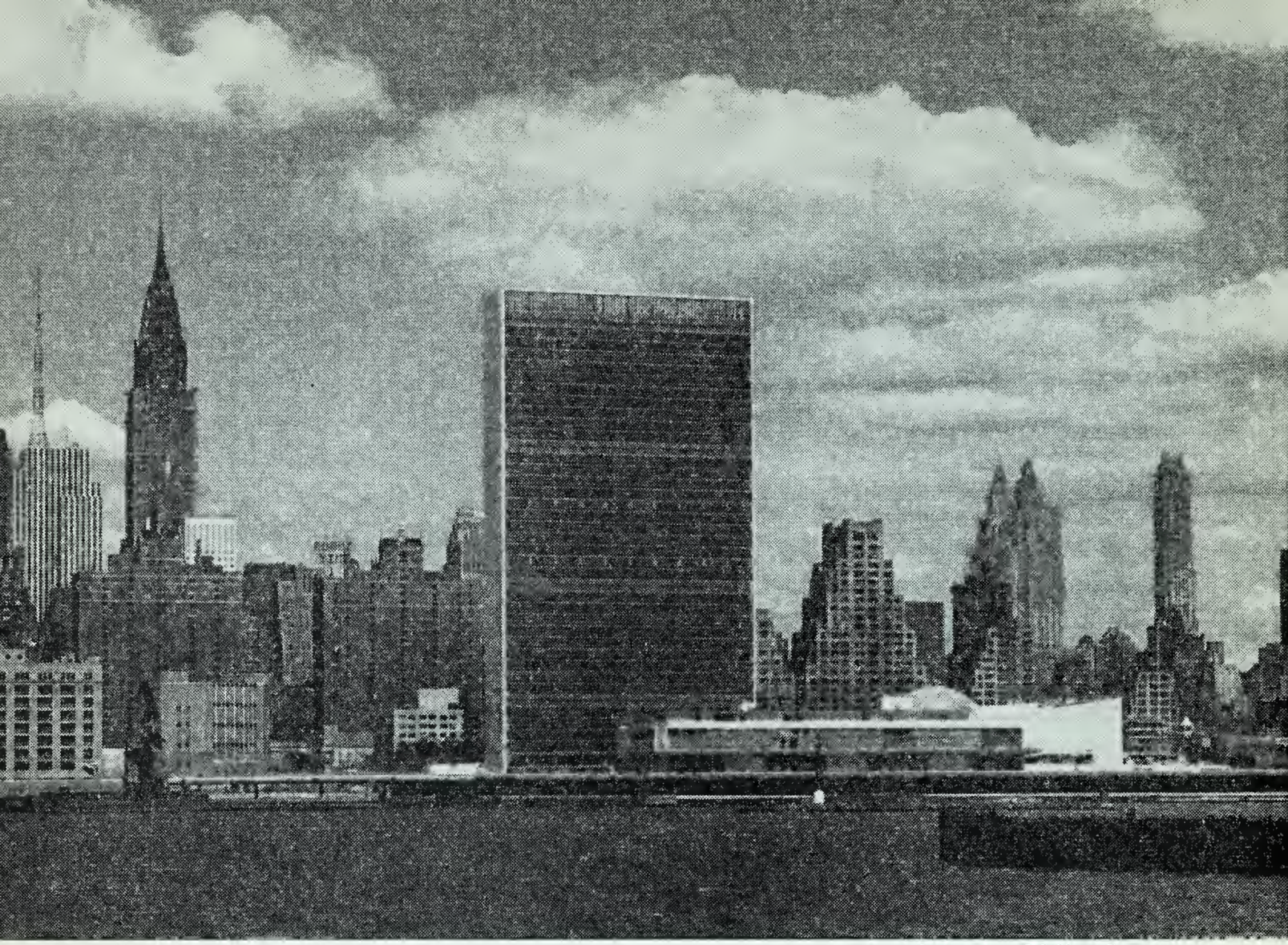
But Canadians had not yet fully awakened to the world. That could be seen from Canada's attitude to the League of Nations, which held the centre of the world stage during the 1920's and much of the '30's. The purpose of the League was to maintain world peace and security, and it was thought that it could deter any nation from starting a war through the agreement of all its members to give armed assistance if any one of them should be attacked. Yet Canada, like the United States—which did not join the League—felt secure enough in 'distant' North America to refuse to guarantee armed assistance to the League of Nations. In the 1930's, although Canadians were shocked by the attacks of warlike Japan, Germany and Italy on other countries, they still did not feel directly threatened. They really left the problems of world peace to the great powers of Europe, Britain and France especially.

However, the demands and the attacks of the dictator-rulers of Germany, Italy and Japan continued to grow. Their menacing, conquering power continued to spread. And so by 1939, when the Second World War finally broke out, Canadians had come to realize that they had to act too, and that only by the united use of armed force could the common danger be overcome and world peace and security be won. Their minds made up, they were in the war from the start.

As this war drew to a close in 1945, Canadians gave enthusiastic support to the forming of the United Nations, which was meant to be a stronger body than the League had been. Canada demobilized her military forces quickly, but she did not shirk her obligations to the United Nations. Instead, she felt that as a 'middle', if not a great power in the world, she should have greater responsibilities there than many a smaller nation. And Canada continued to give her best efforts to the work of the United Nations, believing that a true and lasting peace could only come through the co-operation of all countries.

(b) Canada in World Affairs Today. In more recent years, Canadians have gained a fuller understanding of world happenings through the active part that their country has played in the United Nations and many specialized international bodies. Canada has had an important role in UNRRA, the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration, which brought help to war-damaged countries after the Second World War; in the World Food and Agriculture Organization; and in the International Civil Air Organization, whose headquarters are in Montreal. She is, moreover, a permanent member of the vital Atomic Energy Commission, and sits in other United Nations organizations as well. And no longer do Canadian leaders cling to the belief that shaping policies to meet threats to peace is only the responsibility of the great powers, as they did in the 1920's and 1930's. Instead, during and after the Second World War, Canada has taken a vigorous share in discussing all such questions. At the United Nations her representatives have worked to settle disputes among the great powers by proposing compromises, and have had some success in this regard. Consequently in these world gatherings Canada has often had an influence far greater than that justified by her power alone.

Soon after the Second World War, however, it became clear that the western nations of Europe and America could not remain in peaceful agreement with their recent wartime ally, Soviet Russia. Communist Russian leaders seemed determined to make the



Courtesy Miller Services

THE NEWLY COMPLETED UNITED NATIONS BUILDING IN NEW YORK

most of the unsettled times to extend their control over other lands by armed occupation, or by the seizure of their neighbours' governments by communist movements from within. The democratic western countries gradually came together in opposition to the spread of Soviet and communist power, with the United States, now the world's strongest power, taking the lead. Terms such as the 'cold war' now came into use to describe the strains and clashes just short of actual fighting that arose between the two great groups.

As the good friend and neighbour of the United States—which was also the chief ally of Britain and the Commonwealth—Canada naturally worked closely with the mighty American republic in the days of strain. This was a serious step for her, since she lay between the two greatest opposed powers, with the United States on one side and Soviet Russia across the Arctic on the other.

Hence Canada's very location, and the shifting of world power to the United States, involved this country still more fully in world events. And so our world awareness has grown most rapidly of all in these trying years since the Second World War.

As efforts of the Soviet Union to spread its power westward into Europe became more menacing after 1945, they were met with measures hastily improvised by the United States and Britain. But more definite plans were needed to protect western European nations like France, Belgium and Norway from the communist threat. Canada was among the first to propose a treaty to unite countries on both sides of the North Atlantic for common protection. In April 1949 Canada and the United States joined with ten European countries in signing the North Atlantic Treaty that set up a twenty-year alliance known as NATO. The allies agreed to build up military strength to check Russian expansion and to try to restore the economies of the European nations by co-operation. American and Canadian land troops, sea and air forces were later sent to Europe. Canada thus took up the task of helping to defend western Europe, because her whole security is tied up with that of Great Britain, France and the other European countries that form part of the North Atlantic 'world'.

Canada's rising interest in other countries is also well illustrated by the remarkable growth of her diplomatic service abroad. It was not until 1927 that Canada sent her first official representative outside the Commonwealth — a minister to Washington. Few additional representatives were sent abroad in the 1930's. However, during and after the Second World War, the Canadian diplomatic service advanced by leaps and bounds. By 1953 Canada had fifty-one diplomatic and consular missions in foreign countries and four permanent delegations. These missions served to gather information for the Canadian government, to explain Canada to other countries, and to encourage the exchange of goods and ideas.

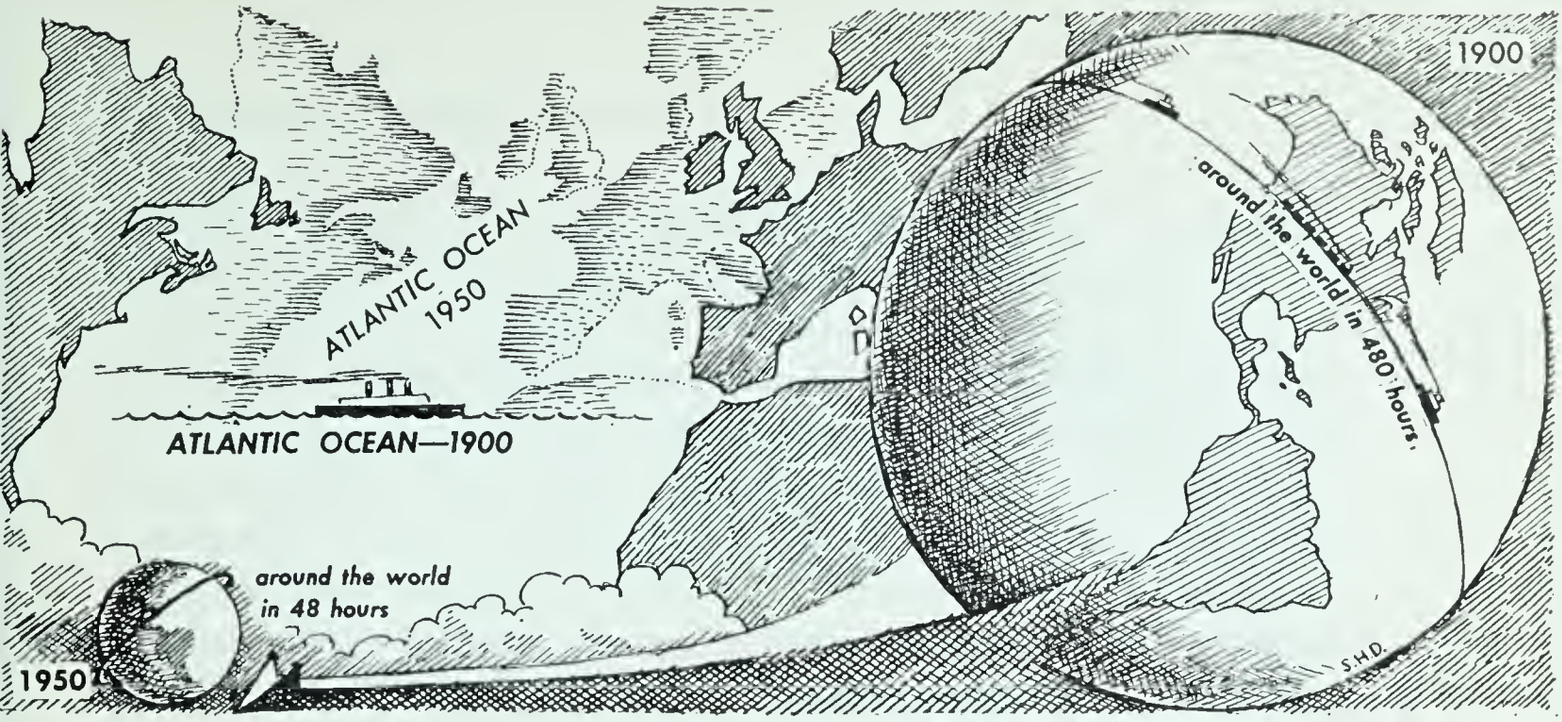
From all this evidence we can readily see how much indeed Canadians have grown aware of the world and its complicated

problems, and we have also seen some of the reasons for this development. But there are still more and deeper reasons for our world awareness today. They are to be found partly in the general advance of Canada as a nation, but mainly in the nature of the age in which we live. And to these points we now must turn.

3. Our Modern Age of Grave World Problems

(a) The Shrinking World and Problems of Defence. While Canada still remained a colony and decisions on important foreign questions were made by British officials in London, Canadians felt small concern over world affairs, for they usually had little information on the subject. They generally were ready to follow the policy of the motherland when it was made. In any case there seemed little need to be disturbed by world events, for these were controlled to a considerable extent by the British power that carried the burden of so many international responsibilities. But as Canada grew towards nationhood, she had to take on her own responsibilities for making decisions in world affairs. Thus a mature Canada has acted independently of Britain at various times. Canadians have learned to regard world problems from their own point of view, and more and more have had to rely on their own knowledge about other peoples and other lands to make wise decisions. Naturally, too, this has greatly added to their interest in the world at large.

But we must not form the mistaken belief that a keen awareness of world problems is limited to Canada. Other nations are also very conscious of the importance of world affairs. They too live in a world which is rapidly shrinking in comparative size. There is less time and room for decisions, and they matter more. No longer are nations separated from each other by great expanses of time and space. Radio messages go circling around the globe at the same speed that light travels. On land, far-reaching railways and fast motor vehicles overcome many former delays and diffi-



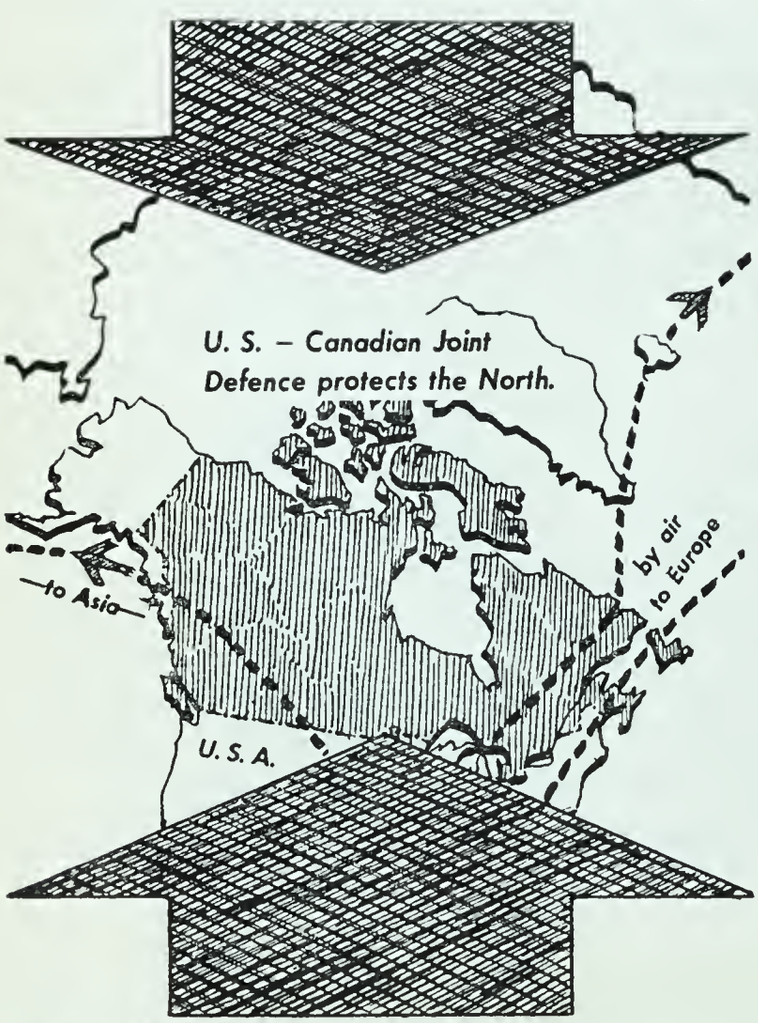
THE WORLD HAS SHRUNK

culties in travel and transportation, while at sea high-powered modern ships reduce the time for voyages from months to days. In the air, passenger planes have cut down the crossing from Canada to Britain to half a day's time, but sky-piercing jets, travelling with the speed of sound, can hurtle across the distance in three hours. Even the mighty Pacific can be traversed by non-stop flight in a matter of hours.

It has well been said that the English Channel, which was an effective barrier to an invasion of Britain as late as 1940, has now become almost as invisible as the jet plane that streaks across it at 40,000 feet and at 600 miles per hour. North America has now succeeded Britain as an island in the sea, set as it is between two oceans. Indeed, the whole broad Atlantic Ocean now seems little wider than the English Channel once did!

The increasing progress in more rapid communications has deprived countries of the protection that once was given by great distances and isolation. All lands are affected, but this is particularly true of Canada. The meaning of geography has greatly changed for her. She is no longer remote from the main capitals and trade centres of the world. Rather she occupies a central position in the grouping of world power. In the air age, Canada lies at the crossroads of key air routes, as may readily be seen by a study of the globe or a map on the Arctic projection.

Geography has also placed Canada next to the United States. with a long, open land boundary-line between them. As the United States became more alarmed about the defence of the Americas against the threat of Germany and Japan, at the beginning of the Second World War, the future of Canada became of much greater concern to American leaders. Both countries were ready for an agreement to work together for their common security. The place of Canada in the defence of North America thus became officially recognized by the Ogdensburg Agreement of 1940, which set up a Canadian-American Permanent Joint Board on Defence. This Board made possible the close co-operation between the armed forces of the two countries in the defence of Alaska, the Yukon, the Northwest Territories and Newfoundland during the Second World War. With the ending of that struggle, the co-operation still went on, especially as new dangers loomed from the communist world. The rise of the United States to become the leading nation of the democratic group, and Canada's position between her and the Soviet Arctic, has made joint Canadian-American planning for defence even more important, and so added a special military kind of awareness to the Canadian world outlook today.



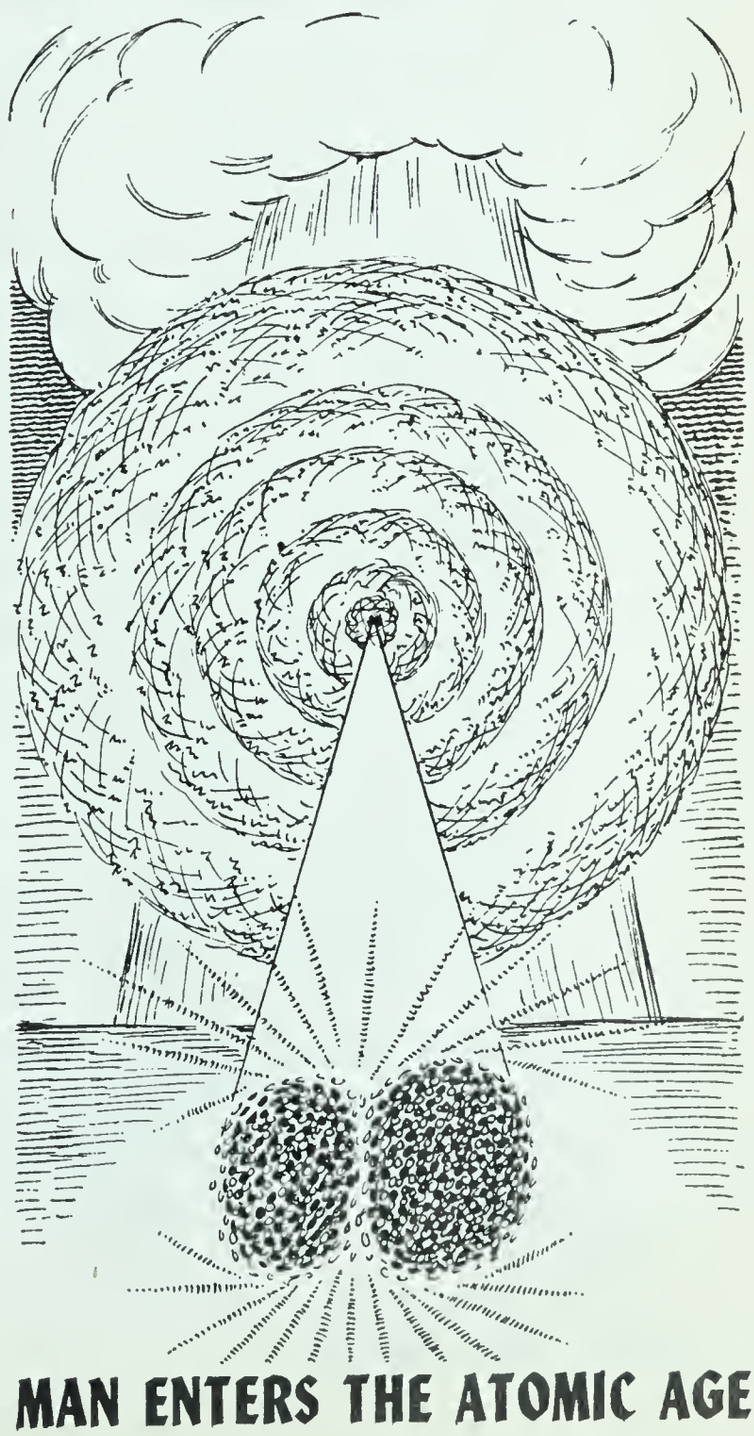
CANADA'S STRATEGIC POSITION

The great problems of defence and possible attack in a third world war have hastened research experiments in atomic energy—not only in North America, but in Britain and in the Soviet Union. The unbelievable destructive power of atomic weapons hovers as a menace over our civilization, should another war start. Now by means of the hydrogen bomb, whole cities could be wiped out in an instant. Yet in this grim

new age of atom and hydrogen bombs. Canada holds an important place because she possesses great supplies of uranium, a principal source of atomic energy. Atomic energy, too, may provide a wonderful source of power for production and transportation as well as for destruction. But undoubtedly the unlocking of the tremendous might of the atom has made our modern age still more uneasily aware of the world beyond our own boundaries, since an atomic bomb can be sent to drop destruction from half a world away. At the same time the very dangers of the new atomic age have made men and nations more conscious of how all our fates on this earth are tied together, and this may yet bring a brighter day of world co-operation.

(b) Problems of Trade and Resources. Another very important force that has helped to develop modern world awareness is the spread of international trade. This force has certainly operated in the case of Canada, which stands third among all nations in the value of her trade with other lands, thanks to her rich natural resources and ever-growing industrial power. The rise of international t r a d e has largely stemmed from the constant advance of the industrial revolution. This great change to modern machine industry has not only spread from Britain to Europe, to the United States and Canada, but is now reaching right around the world.

As the population of the world continues to increase, and as the industrial revolution stirs in more

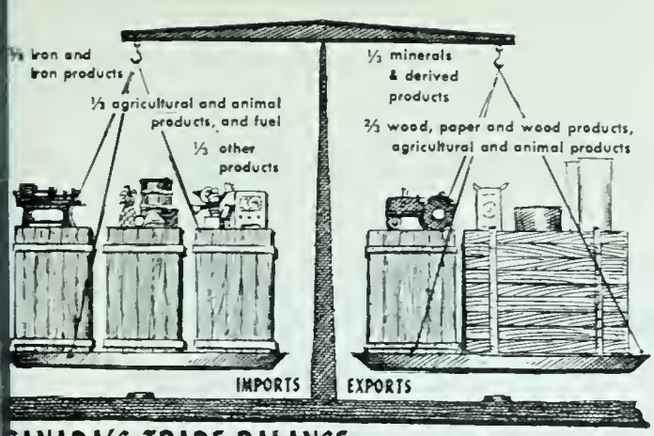


MAN ENTERS THE ATOMIC AGE

and more countries, economic life becomes vastly complicated. Nations depend on one another for vital raw materials for their factories, for foods for their big non-farming city populations, or for markets for their manufactured goods. It is increasingly difficult for a country to have within its boundaries all of the resources that are required for modern living, or to use all the goods that it can produce — and Canada is a prime example here. In other words, nations are less able to be self-sufficient in supplying all their needs, than they were a century ago. Commerce between nations has become necessary for prosperity. Truly they are all part of one world of trade.

At times, however, government leaders disregard the fact that we live in one world, and put up tariff barriers in efforts to protect their own nation's industries. These can result in limiting the flow of trade from the world outside. Then all countries may suffer to some extent. In fact extreme restrictions of this sort helped to produce the grim trade depression of the 1930's. Canada then was in a difficult position. About one-third of her total production was sold abroad, mainly to Britain and the United States. As this trade declined, various regions of Canada began to feel the effects. Before the depression ended, the whole nation suffered. The people who worked in factories, mines, fisheries or along the waterfronts faced the threat of unemployment. Farmers, even in the most remote areas of the inland prairie provinces, could not secure adequate prices for their produce, and many could not even give produce away. It was made clear to Canadians just how dependent they were on world trade, and that without such trade unemployment and hard times were certain.

Slowly, as world trade revived in the late 1930's, Canada's trade revived too. And during and after the Second World War, Canadian manufacturing and industry went through an unparalleled growth and expansion. Today, more and more of Canada's export trade is thus composed of finished and semi-finished manufactured goods. About two-thirds of her exports are wood, wood products, paper, agricultural and animal products. Of her imports, approxi-

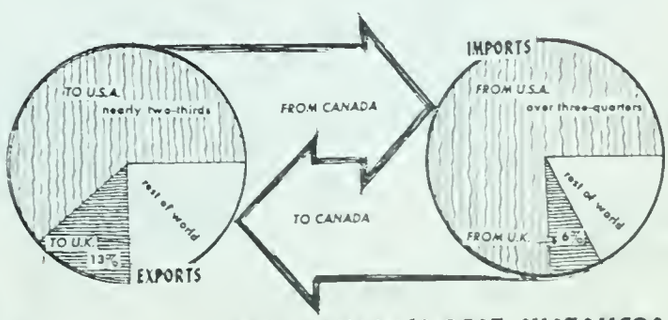


CANADA'S TRADE BALANCE *early 1950s*

mately one-third are iron and iron products and many of these items assist in the expansion of Canadian industry. Fuels, and agricultural and animal products make up another third. Canadian imports for 1952 totalled about four billion dollars, exports more than four billion dollars. This clearly shows the size of Canada's stake in world trade today.

Canada trades chiefly with the United States, the United Kingdom, Venezuela, Belgium, Germany, Brazil, Japan, India, Australia, and France. But quite recently about two-thirds of our commerce has been carried on with the United States, leaving only a third with Great Britain and all the rest of the world combined. Consequently Canadian political leaders and business men are much concerned to expand overseas trade, since it is not too wise to have so many eggs in one American basket, especially if times should become bad again. And these men realize that they must know more of the countries and people with which they trade and with which they hope to expand their commerce. Other nations too are eager to increase their trade abroad, and have sought to have world tariff restrictions reduced, especially those of the United States. For they know that the flow of commerce between peoples is vital to a healthy, prosperous, and peaceful world.

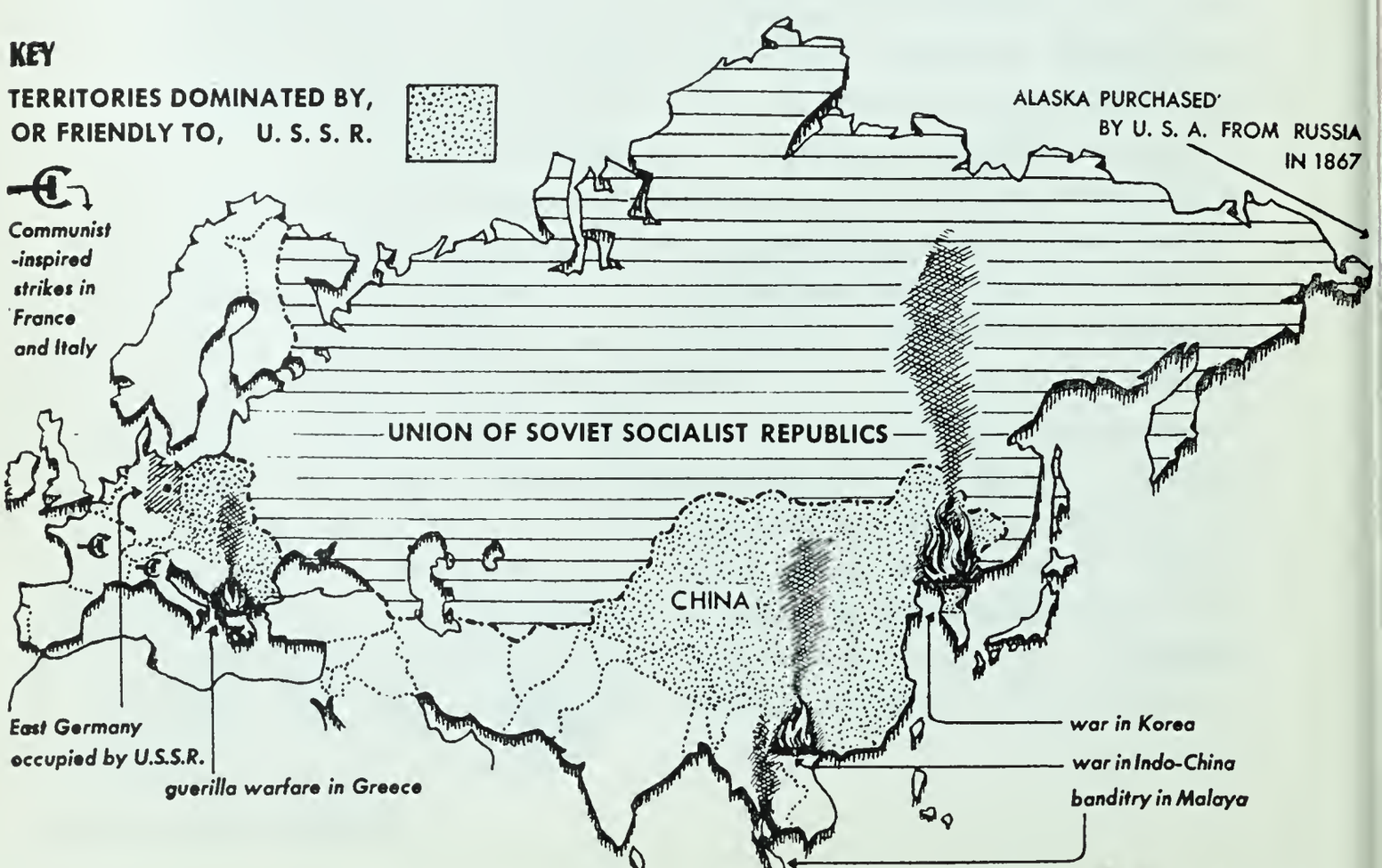
We have seen how even a nation like Canada, with rich resources in raw materials, foodstuffs and power for industry, is dependent on the flow of world trade. But many other countries are far less well endowed by nature. For example, western Europe, powerful in industries, must obtain many of the materials for its factories from outside, while Great Britain in particular, lacking sufficient agricultural land to feed its closely-packed factory population, must also purchase much of its food from abroad. Thus well developed European lands have many problems of resources.



AND CANADA'S BEST CUSTOMERS

On the other hand, especially in Africa and Asia, there are great areas of the world that are still comparatively lacking in industrial growth, and whose main developed resource is a primitive kind of farming. Here there may be huge populations pressing on limited or undeveloped resources, and the people may live on the edge of starvation, in poverty and backwardness. Disease, famine and misery naturally cause discontent in these regions, as their peoples come to see the unequal balance of world resources and development. In their discontent, moreover, they may fall prey to the false ideas of communism, which breed best on ignorance and suffering. And this brings us to still another grave world question of today – perhaps the most apparent – the spread of communism, and the increasing division of 'one world' into two deeply opposed ways of life, the communist and the democratic.

(c) The Problem of Communism. Communism seems to offer bright new hope to suffering people – of equal shares for all, of security, prosperity and contentment – but it can readily be seen, wherever it has been practised around the world, that it does



AREAS OF TENSION SURROUNDING THE U.S.S.R.

not work out that happily and magically. Instead it brings new oppression, and harsh misgovernment to the downtrodden, and prevents the development of any real freedom. For communist teachings do not recognize the democratic principles of discussion, peaceful persuasion and the rights of the individual, but stress instead revolution, force, and the unquestioning acceptance of orders from an all-powerful communist party.

Through the spread of communism, therefore, a vast new world problem emerged after the Second World War. The communists seemed to be working towards their ultimate beliefs in world revolution and world conquest. The Soviet representatives to the United Nations used the device of the 'big and constantly repeated lie' to attack the proposals of the democratic powers, and gathered communist nations behind them. As the debate grew hotter, leaders of the free world rallied to the defence of their priceless freedoms. The United Nations became the battleground of opposed ideas and principles, and the world's attention was increasingly focused on international questions on which the two sides divided.

There were other kinds of battles too, for communist forces encouraged risings in places as far apart as Greece and Indo-China, brought mass strikes in France and Italy, stirred up unrest in much of Asia, gained control of China, and launched a war in Korea. When the North Korean communist attack fell on South Korea in 1950, that republic appealed to the United Nations. Acting on the request of this body, the United States sent sizeable forces to Korea and other democratic U.N. members sent smaller units. Korea became a fighting line between the two armed camps, and there was danger of a third world war. To this front Canada too sent men and materials.

Canada's action in thus sending forces to help prevent the spread of another war was possible because Canadians now recognized the importance of showing that aggression — open attack — would no longer go unopposed in the world, as it had in the days of German and Japanese violence to their neighbours in the 1930's. Clearly the old ideas of isolation and Canada's lack of concern

for events in far-away places were things of the past. In fact she had now shown herself ready, through the NATO alliance, to send troops to help discourage communist aggression in Europe; and Canada, like other western democratic countries, certainly felt concerned about the various trouble spots of the world — even in far-off Africa, the Middle East and South East Asia.

Indeed, in Asia, one great world area of striking change and difficult problems, Canada has shared in efforts made not only to prevent war but to better the lives of many suffering millions. New hope for the future of Asia has come to western countries from the progress made in democratic government by the two new Asian nations that once comprised the old British Indian Empire — Pakistan and India. They can show the East the way to avoid communism. With these new partners of the Commonwealth, Canada has exchanged diplomatic representatives. She has also tried to aid their economic development by sending them professional men and technicians, by training their own, and by providing loans through the Colombo Plan. This was launched by the Commonwealth countries at Colombo, Ceylon, in 1950 to raise the living standards of these backward Asian lands. The financial assistance given is small in comparison to the great total effort required for development in these areas but in terms of better understanding between Asia and western lands like Canada the results are significant.



As a Pakistan representative explained: "It is becoming increasingly clear that the members of this plan work as members of a family, unified with the idea of helping each other." In such a way world fellowship and practical cooperation may be developed, in this case through the Commonwealth of Nations, that valuable working international organization

which certainly helps to give Canada a wider view of the world.

Thus, for a time of peace, although it is an armed peace, Canadians show more deep awareness of world events than they ever have before. The present age is an age of mighty problems and almost unbelievable changes, overshadowed by the menace of a possible third world war. The threat of atomic warfare is ever at hand. Canadians, like their neighbours in the United States, and like many another nation, are trying to adjust themselves to this rapidly changing world. They must look about them constantly, about the whole world beyond their boundaries.

4. The Shortcomings of our World View

While our modern age has broken down the old barriers of great distances and difficulties of communication, it has also created new obstacles that limit the understanding of one country for another. For instance, it is no longer possible for people to move in large numbers from Europe to the Americas and elsewhere. The once great migrations overseas have been ended by European countries discouraging any mass outflow of their citizens, and by American nations selecting only those people who will be welcomed to their shores. Restrictions are also placed on the numbers who may enter the United States from any country by a system of 'quotas'. This system was first applied to Asians, and after the First World War was extended to people from other lands and areas. Other nations raised similar restrictions. Thus mass movements of population have been checked by new barriers. But still other barriers have been raised to free movement around the world.

To travel from one country to another, people require passports. For many years these were easy to obtain, but since the great depression of the 1930's more strict regulations have been made. Passports have become difficult to secure, especially in communist lands.

In fact, some nations refuse to give such documents to their citizens to prevent them from migrating. All passports are subject to careful inspection, and a person may be refused the right of entry into another land. Under such circumstances, there are extremely few people, other than government officials, travelling between the free and communist worlds. Gone are the days of easy travel as passports regulations raise new obstacles, sometimes even between friendly countries. And there are still other barriers.

Our feeling towards other peoples is greatly influenced by the information that we receive about them. If the information is favourable, we regard them as friends. But if it stresses undesirable or even dangerous characteristics, then we may look upon them as our enemies. This presentation of information about peoples or nations is called propaganda. All governments make use of propaganda to influence the attitudes of their people. If such information, whether distorted or not, is repeated often enough, people will come to believe it. Thus barriers in thought and outlook are created between nations.

The most outstanding example of propaganda barriers is in the lands under communist control. This barrier is so thoroughly organized and enforced that it was named the 'iron curtain' by that great British statesman, Sir Winston Churchill. We hear about these countries only such things as the leaders wish us to hear: the people living there likewise get a distorted view about the democratic way of life. As a result, real knowledge of such peoples is decidedly limited by propaganda.

Moreover, even in Canada there are times when we do not get a very accurate account of world news. All too frequently reporters tend to over-simplify events so that readers may follow them more easily. From press, radio or newsreel accounts of happenings in other parts of the world comes the danger that we will look upon people of other lands in simple, set terms such as 'with us' or 'against us'. If 'with us' they are like the 'good guys' of childhood days and if 'against us', they are like the 'bad guys'. All very simple — but this makes it far harder to show tolerance and bal-

ance, patience and understanding, qualities that are vitally necessary if we are going to deal successfully with other peoples and world problems. And we face the shortcoming of looking upon events elsewhere in terms of easy symbols – 'communist' and 'democratic' or 'uncivilized' and 'civilized'. Such tendencies are made stronger by the fact that reports about foreign countries are often incomplete and sometimes inaccurate. Even then foreign news may be hastily scanned by many readers who find a greater attraction in the sports page and comics.

The Canadian view of world events is also definitely influenced by our own happy living conditions. We see in Canada a country with a white population, enjoying a high standard of living and the benefits of great industrial developments. These conditions we regard as normal for other countries and peoples. But in actual fact, Canada is among the fortunate nations in the world: our country is much more of an exception than the general rule. Actually there are more coloured peoples than white people in the world. The world in 1950 had an estimated population of 2,400,000,000 and of these more than one half lived in Asia. How small Canada's fifteen million seem in comparison.

Yet Canada ranks high among the nations in the average yearly income received by her citizens. Canadians have a longer life expectancy than coloured peoples due to their advanced medical services, plentiful supplies of food, high wages, and healthy climate. We find it almost impossible to understand how ignorance and grinding poverty, weakening diseases and malnutrition, and the ever-present likelihood of death due to famine or epidemic, influence the outlook and actions of people less fortunate than ourselves. We are shocked by the resentment shown towards white people by many Asians and by some Negroes in Africa. Worse, some of us may think certain coloured peoples 'naturally' inferior because they live under distressing conditions that would hold anyone back from progress.

Canadians need to continue to broaden their views about other lands. It is not enough to leave this task to our representatives



Courtesy United Nations

Famine Weakens the Children of Less Fortunate Lands

abroad and leaders at home. Our democratic form of government constantly needs the support or criticism of well-informed citizens if our country is going to do its proper work in world affairs. It is much too easy to dismiss other peoples with words such as 'foreigners' or 'backward', too often implying that they are less intelligent and capable than ourselves. We must not forget that many Asian peoples, for instance, have great backgrounds of civilization which had developed long before the white man came to America. The benfits of learning and culture in these civilizations were limited to a privileged few who maintained high standards of scholarship and encouraged achievement in the arts. Arab medicine and mathematics, Chinese painting and philosophy, Indian architecture and literature; these are only a few examples of the great work that was achieved for the world. It is true that the ruling classes of these lands were not concerned with the lot of the common people and gave no encouragement to the production of machinery and the establishment of mighty industries. But in culture, the Asian privileged classes are often our equals or even our superiors.

Relations between nations are very complicated and may be influenced by many things. If the ideal of one world as promoted by the United Nations is ever going to be achieved, then a better understanding between world neighbours is essential. We may show good will, friendship and co-operation. But these are not sufficient. We must realize that other nations of the world may be suspicious of our intentions and may refuse to co-operate. Then it is most necessary to try and to keep on trying to reach some understanding or agreement. Our representatives in the United Na-

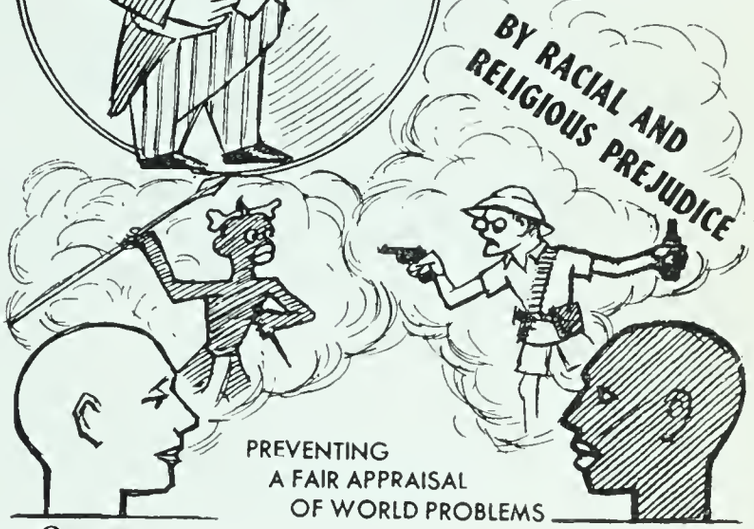
tions face such difficulties and have to try without ceasing to break down the barriers. Repeated efforts may help to avoid the destruction of a third world war.

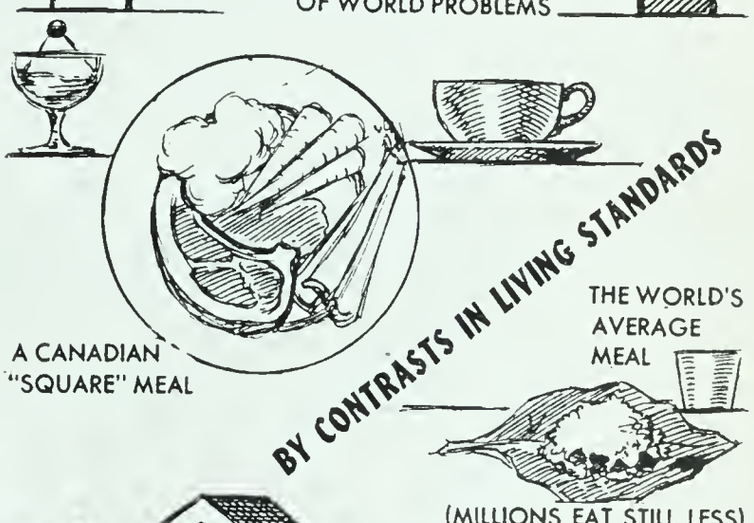
Our leaders and representatives need the encouragement that comes from well-informed citizens. An attitude of indifference or a belief that nothing can be done to secure world co-operation would certainly have a profound influence on our leaders. Should they cease their efforts to persuade nations to work together, another force directed to the cause of world understanding would disappear, and this might well be fatal. To exist, indeed, we must constantly strive to get along with other peoples who may not be our friends.

You, as the rising generation of Canadian citizens, must learn of world events and be informed about the problems that the nations of the world face. Your example and faith can do much to aid in world co-operation and understanding. To make them effective, we must all try to appreciate the interests, viewpoints, and hopes of other lands and peoples. We must try to work with them, whether we approve or not of their

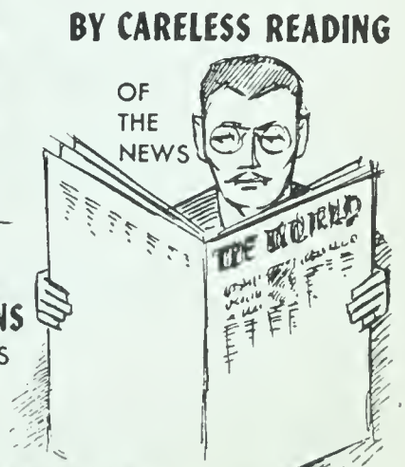












OUR WORLD PICTURE IS FREQUENTLY DISTORTED

ways of life and methods. Only with some understanding of the various problems that make world relations so complex can we do our part. But to understand them, we must uncover many things. We will begin at the very beginning, through learning something of the globe on which we all live.

Learn by Doing

1. Discuss the reasons for Canada accepting greater responsibility in world affairs in the United Nations than in the League of Nations. (2)

2. Find examples of Canada's participation in United Nations affairs in current or old newspaper accounts. (2)

3. A committee is formed to find out some of the responsibilities of a Canadian embassy or consulate. (2)

4. Divide the class into five committees to discuss the reasons for Canada's awareness of world problems. Have each committee discuss and present to the class the significance of one of the following: (2)
   (a) Canada's growth into nationhood.
   (b) Improvements in transportation and communication.
   (c) Canada's location as a neighbour of the United States.
   (d) Canada's need for trade.
   (e) The threat of communism.

5. Have pupils bring examples of the following types of propaganda from magazines, newspapers or other sources: (4)
   (a) appeals to your emotions.
   (b) tells only one side of a story.
   (c) 'seeing is believing'.
   (d) is endorsed by a prominent person.
   (e) calls names or uses labels.
   (f) uses the idea, "Get on the band-wagon; everyone is doing it."

6. (a) Discuss ways in which the living conditions of the less fortunate peoples may be improved. (4)
   (b) Why are other peoples frequently suspicious of Canadians and Americans?

Facts to Know

1. Why did Canada not have a world outlook in 1900? (1)
2. (a) What is meant by NATO? (2, b)
   (b) Why was it organized?
3. What do Canada's diplomatic and consular missions do? (2, b)
4. (a) What is the Permanent Joint Board of Defence which was established by the Ogdensburg Agreement? (3, a)
   (b) What is its purpose?
5. List the principal imports and exports of Canada. (3, b)
6. Explain the significance of the Colombo Plan. (3, c)
7. Why are restrictions placed upon the number of immigrants permitted to enter a country? (4)
8. Outline briefly the purpose of propaganda. (4)
9. How would poor living conditions affect the outlook of less fortunate peoples?

Supplementary Reading

Caldwell, E. N.—Satin Skirts of Commerce—S. J. Reginald Saunders

Linton and Linton—Man's Way from Cave to Skyscraper—Musson Book Co. Ltd.

Massey, Vincent—On Being Canadian—J. M. Dent and Sons

Osborn, F.—The Limits of the Earth—Little Brown and Co.

UNIT TWO

THE GLOBE WE LIVE ON

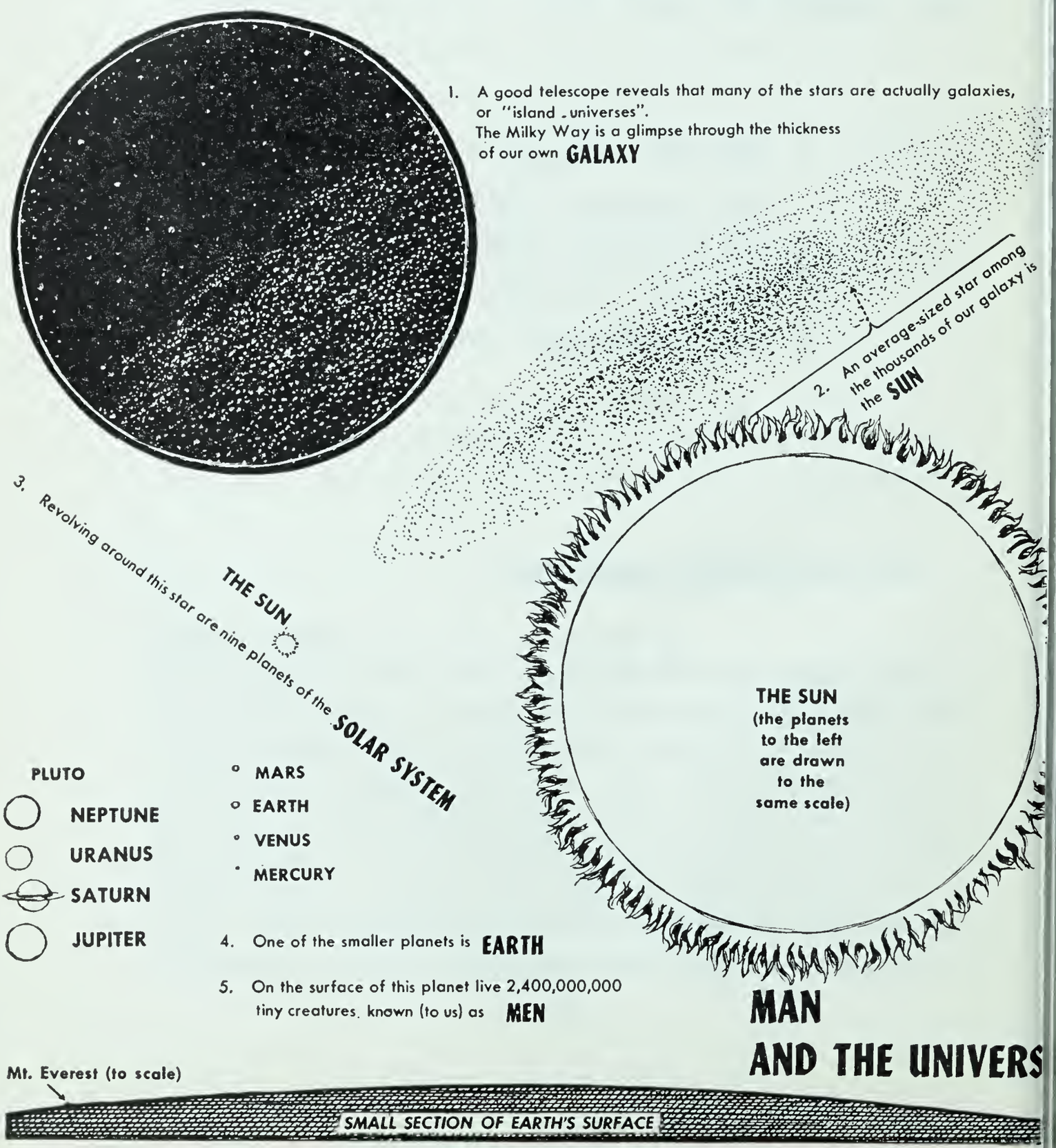
1. *The Vast Universe — and Man*
2. *The Moulding of the Earth*
3. *The Early Ages of Mankind*
4. *Man and Geography*
5. *World Geography Today*

1. The Vast Universe — and Man

In one sense, the great world on which we live is but a tiny ball whirling in the vastness of space. This sphere spins like a top and at the same time moves around the sun in company with eight other spheres called planets, each in its own fixed path. This group of heavenly bodies revolving about the giant sun — 'sol' in Latin — forms what is known as the solar system, and its size is so great that it is hard even to imagine with our usual ideas of time and space. For instance, a fast jet plane that can gobble up earth's distances at 500 miles an hour, would, if it were possible, take twenty years to fly to the sun, ninety-three

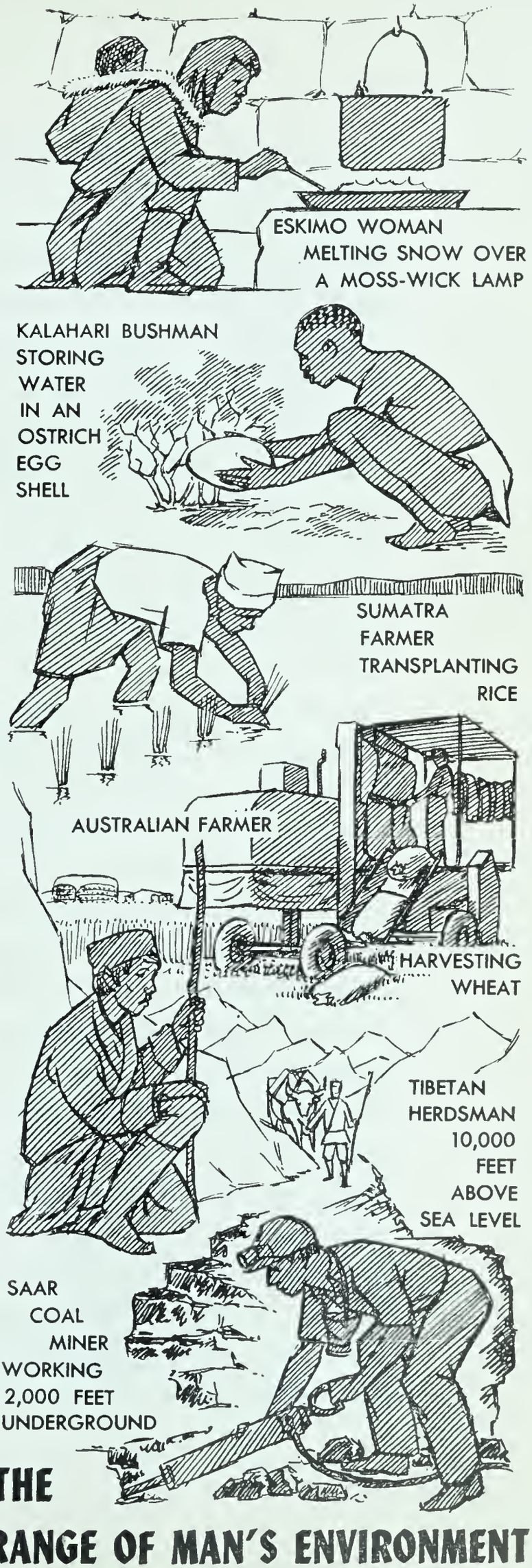
million miles away — and 900 years to fly to Pluto, the outermost planet of the solar system!

The earth, which seems so big to us, is but one of the smaller planets and in comparison with other heavenly bodies is only a speck. Furthermore, the whole immense solar system is just a small part of the universe, made up as it is of countless billions of blazing stars like our own sun, of glowing clouds of gas and dust, and of cold masses of rock, all floating in the loneliness of endless



space. So vast are the distances of the universe that to measure them astronomers use a special unit, the 'light year'. This is the distance which light – which travels at 186,000 miles a *second* – covers in a *year*. Light from the nearest of the stars takes more than four years to reach the earth, so that we say it is over 'four light years' away from us, while the twinkle you see tonight from a more distant star may actually have started on its journey before Columbus set forth for America. Indeed, even without a telescope, you can actually see light from stars about 750,000 light years away. In all this unbelievably vast universe, how tiny and insignificant is man, living on a little bit of dust he calls the world!

Man in his world is subject to great forces of nature that control his actions. His very life depends on the heat and light of the sun, and on the thin layer of air which surrounds the globe. This air which he breathes also acts as a blanket and shields him from temperature extremes, so that he does not freeze solid with cold at night when the sun's rays do not reach him, or shrivel up in the day from the burning heat of a direct sunlight which has not been filtered through



THE RANGE OF MAN'S ENVIRONMENT

an atmosphere. Then too, he depends on the world's water supply, on its rainfall, and on the winds that bring life-giving rains for the crops that feed him. Indeed, where he lives in the world is largely controlled by the patterns of heat and cold, of wind and rain, and by the distribution of the resources that he finds in the earth itself.

Nevertheless, although little man is ruled by such controls, he has certain God-given powers which give him his special importance, among them, a mind and an ability to think. These gifts have placed him above all other living things, and have, indeed, given him 'dominion over them'. He has learned to work with the great forces of nature, and has shown amazing ability to adjust his life to his surroundings, or environment. Thus today man may be found living in the coldest environments of the world, as our own Canadian Eskimos do, or in the hottest, as in the jungles of the Amazon or the deserts of Africa. In many areas, besides, men have learned to develop highly complicated forms of civilized life through their ability to work together, to gain skills and knowledge, and to uncover and use the riches of the earth. Man may even alter the effects of some of the 'environmental controls', the natural forces that shape his environment, as when, despite lack of rainfall, he turns the dry desert into fertile farmland through building irrigation systems to bring in needed water from other areas.

Accordingly, because of man's special power within all the vast universe, human life has a value beyond measure. We in western democratic lands recognize that fact when we pay regard to the rights of every man, and declare that each human being has as much right to life and freedom as any other. And here is a good starting point, as we begin to study the development of our world and mankind's place upon it — the realization that this is truly the story of man's efforts to make use of his wonderful powers, and to live a free and fruitful life amid all the mighty forces of nature that surround him.

2. The Moulding of the Earth

(a) In the Beginning. Throughout the ages people have asked themselves how the world began, and have produced many answers to that fascinating question. The Bible, of course, tells the wonderful story of the Creation, and while modern science has developed theories that explain the story in other terms, many men have been able to fit the scientific theories in with the beautiful and poetic account given in the Old Testament. At any rate, these theories of science cannot be definitely proved, and so at best they provide us with a kind of thoughtful guess as to the way our world took shape, without necessarily disagreeing at all, in real meaning, with the grand but brief account of the Creation in the Scriptures.

The planets and their moons were flaming masses of gas at first, but they have gradually cooled through a molten or liquid state until they are now entirely solid rock or composed of a solid rock shell surrounding a hot molten core. Some have developed atmospheres—blankets of gases covering their surfaces. The earth is an example. Others are airless lumps of rock like our moon.

Slowly indeed the earth cooled, while all over its face smoke and fire continued to burst forth from the hot core, and fierce mountains of molten rock broke through the hardening crust. Blocks of granite and basalt were built up and spread over the surface like mighty icefields forming across a restless sea. After untold years these great rock masses became the foundations of the continents. As the earth's crust cooled, it also contracted, and tremendous pressures were exerted on the rocks that were taking shape. Lofty ranges of mountains were thrust up; deep valleys were formed between them. And violent changes in the surface continued to take place.

After the crust had finally hardened, the seas were made. The elements that form water had been released from the cooling globe.

Enormous masses of cloud probably hid the face of the world, and rain started to fall, only to be turned again to steam as it landed on the hot rocks. But this hastened the cooling of the rocks below the boiling point of water. In time the rain fell and stayed. The cloud masses gave up tremendous quantities of water that rushed towards the lower parts of the earth's surface. When at last the sun broke through the dwindling banks of clouds, glittering lakes and broad seas sparkled brightly. The water from rain carved away the sides and tops of mountains and carried minerals and soil down to the seas. As this sediment piled up, the seas slowly rose and covered large areas of the young continents. The level of the waters rose and fell several times. Each variation caused great changes in the coasts of the continents, while century on century of wind and rain wore down or 'eroded' mountains and broadened out valleys.

A long period of calm would be followed by another age of violent mountain building. Here and there the earth's crust was warped and folded to form new mountain ranges or great ocean depths. Areas that had been under shallow oceans were sometimes thrust upward to become dry land in the folding that took place, while other areas sank beneath the sea. Volcanoes exploded into violent action and poured out molten rock. Such ages of activity greatly changed the appearance of the earth's surface, leaving us in North America, for example, both the 'old', rounded, worn-down Appalachians and the jagged 'new' Rocky Mountains, as well as the broad western plains that were once an ocean bed.

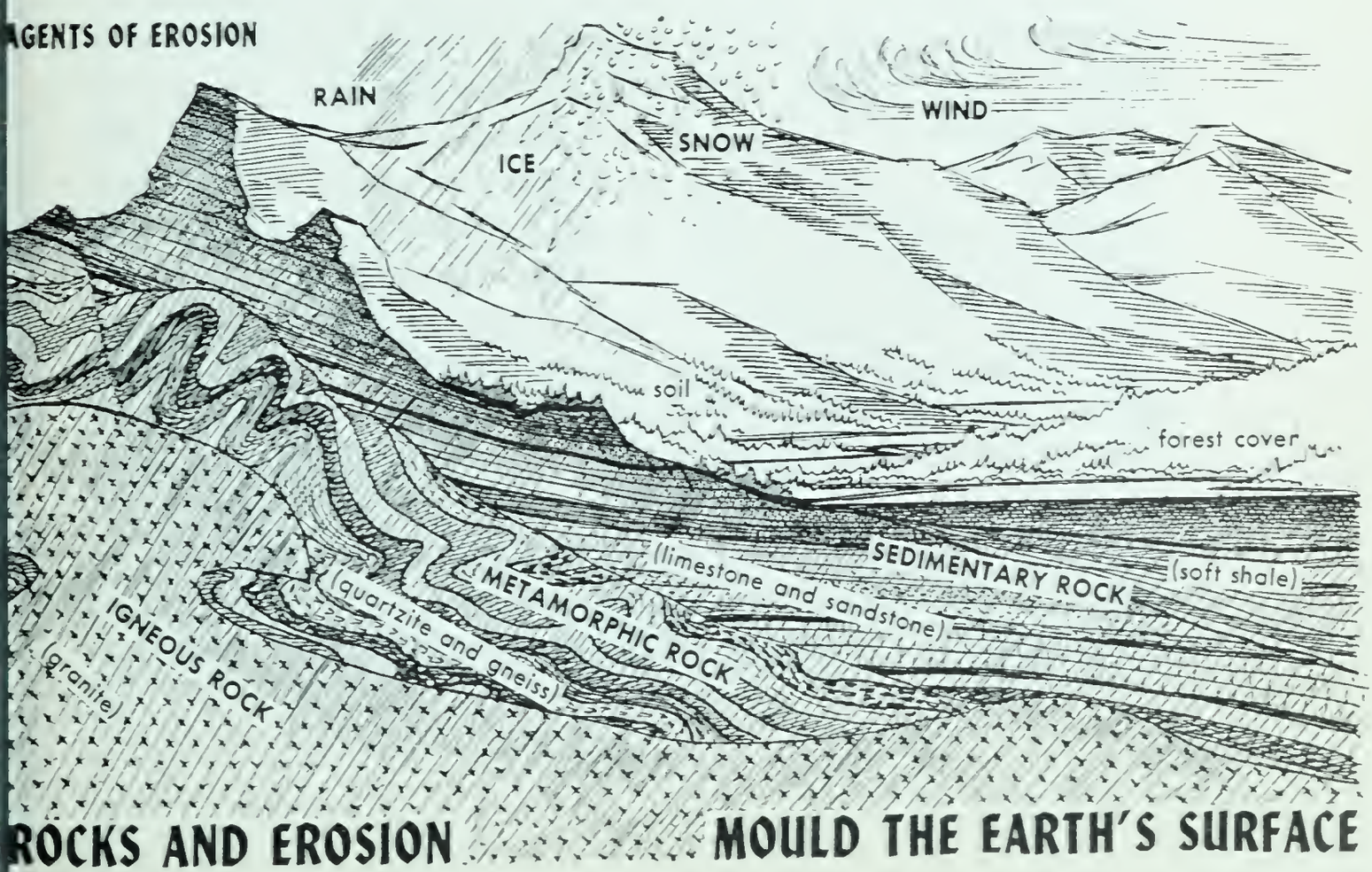
The first rocks were made as the fiery liquid globe cooled and solidified, and so they are called 'igneous' or fire-formed rocks. Granite is a good example. The earth in its molten state contained many elements. During the cooling, some of these came together to form chemical compounds. These elements and compounds are the minerals which make up the rocks. It is mainly in igneous rocks that the important minerals such as iron, nickel, copper, gold and uranium are found in amounts sufficiently large to be worth mining. Since Canada's northland is a mass of fire-formed

rock (the Precambrian Shield) and is therefore very rich in minerals, mining is extremely important in Canada's economy. And minerals form a great resource for man throughout the world.

Rocks are attacked and worn down by changes in temperature, and by wind and rain and ice. These 'weathering agents' gradually break up the rocks into small fragments ranging in size from boulders and pebbles to sand and even the finest clay. Most of these particles are carried away by rivers and streams and eventually deposited in the sea. Here they sink to the bottom after being sorted out into layers according to size. This sediment builds up to tremendous thickness and the great weight compresses the bottom layers into a new type of rock called 'sedimentary' rock. Sandstone, shale, and limestone are the main examples.

Still another type of rock is formed when either igneous or sedimentary rock is subjected to great heat and pressure during periods of mountain building. Thus sandstone is changed to quartzite, shale to slate, and limestone to marble. These rocks are called 'metamorphic' (that is 'changed') rocks.

The wearing-away, or breaking down process termed erosion has had another great result in the world's long history. From



crumbled rocks it has produced finely ground materials from which come soil, vital to all plant growth on earth. With the passing of centuries, decayed plant and animal matter were added to the mixture, and gradually there was built up that thin layer of fertile top-soil on which mankind depends for existence. It is in this, and not in the barren sub-soils, that plants root and thrive. Thus top-soil was another great world resource to appear, and it grew as plants and animals spread over the earth. But that brings us to another big step in the story.

(b) The Spreading of Life. Science cannot tell us how life, that deep mystery, first began on the earth. Yet it does suggest that the earliest living beings were tiny organisms that dwelled in the warm seas surrounding the still lifeless land, and that they were plants rather than animals. The first were unrooted simple forms of plant life like green pond-scum or algae. Later, various seaweeds came into being. As favourable conditions developed on land, mosses and lichens appeared there. Ferns of many types developed, and after thousands of years, shrubs and small trees. And then in time great forest giants came to cast their shade on the land, promising yet another resource for the future race of men.

The development of plant life was followed by the beginning of animal life, which depends on plants for food. In the sea many different kinds of fishes appeared, some of which have now passed out of existence. Gradually, over the ages, life crept out of the water. On land various kinds of creatures all had their day and disappeared—giant dragon flies, monster reptiles or dinosaurs, and, much later, large mammals like the hairy mammoth and the sabre-toothed tiger. Slowly the animals we know today emerged.

Long ages marched by, ages of heat or cold, all leaving their mark in the record of the rocks. For example, hot ages produced some of the riches of the earth. At times, a mild climate extended far towards the poles, and dense vegetation covered much of the land. In swampy places trees and other plants grew rapidly, and, as they died and fell, covered the ground with thick layers of decaying vegetation. Layers of sediment were deposited over the dead

vegetation, and over the years pressure and heat transformed it into one of man's greatest modern resources — coal. In a similar manner, tremendous quantities of marine animals and plants died and sank to the beds of oceans and were covered with layers of sediment. After the long workings of time, the result was the earth's hidden treasure of petroleum and natural gas. And so today, though the ancient seas may long be vanished, their beds now yield much desired oil, all around the world. Thus we find it in Canada, in the great western plains that once lay beneath the waters.

The earth has experienced considerable variations in temperature, and some ages were very cold. They too left their mark. When the temperature became low, moisture fell as snow and did not melt away in the short summers. Snow became ice, and massive ice caps slowly spread from the poles toward the equator. Tremendous changes took place in the surface of the land as huge advancing ice fields or glaciers ground rock into powder, or scooped up soil and giant boulders and carried them great distances. Thus much of Canada's Shield country was stripped bare, while on the other hand deep deposits of ground-up rock materials were left on the western plains and on Southern Ontario.

After each ice age, as the climate again grew warmer, the ice melted leaving behind a different countryside. In Canada, for example, the Shield was pitted and channelled with countless lakes and waterways, the work of the grinding glaciers; the Great Lakes and St. Lawrence flowed from the melting of the ice-fields, and remnants of glaciers were left high in the British Columbia mountains. And so the earth as we know it today was shaped. Its surface had been marked with mountains, plains, rivers and seas. Its resources such as metals, coal and petroleum had been laid down; its forests, grasslands and animal life had been developed. And man himself entered on the scene.

3. The Early Ages of Mankind

What knowledge we have today of early man has been obtained after much exploring and digging in the

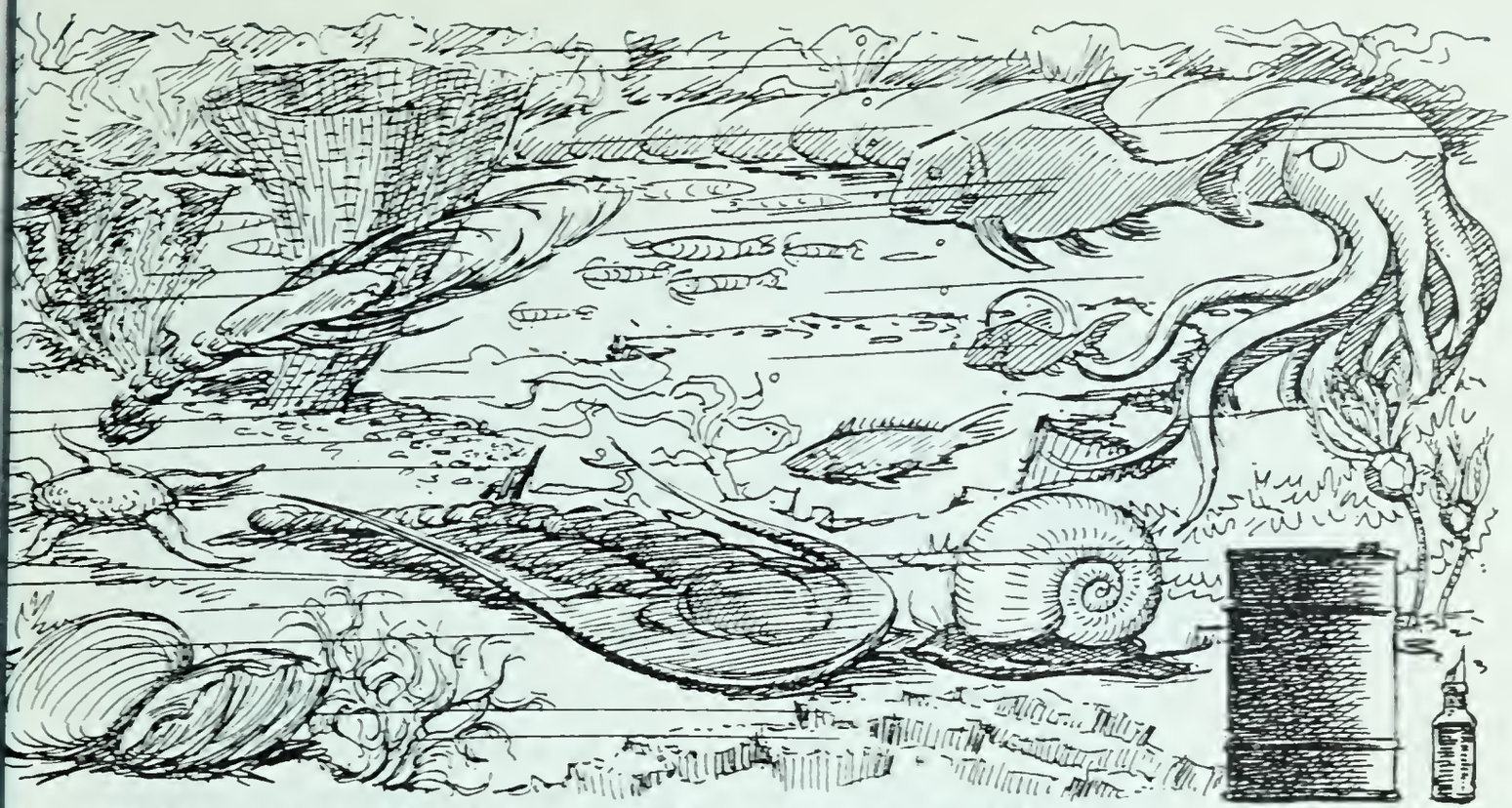


THE COMPRESSED DEPOSITS
OF DECAYED VEGETATION FROM THE SWAMP FORESTS OF 250,000,000 YEARS AGO BECAME TODAYS' **COAL**

graves, the refuse heaps, and piles of age-old human leavings found in caves and other areas where the first known peoples dwelled. The bones and broken implements uncovered here can tell a story to the trained observer of how these people lived; in fact the science of archeology has been built up to study this distant past. Human bones and skulls have also been found in rocks of sedimentary origin in various parts of the world. From these kinds of evidence, archeologists have gradually pieced together the story of prehistoric man — which means man before there was any written history to describe his activities.

At first, the periods of time covered by this story could be set only by guessing. Lately, however, this guessing has been replaced by more accurate methods of determining when things happened in far distant ages, through measuring the amount of atomic radiations given off by articles found with the remains of early man. By the remarkable 'Carbon 14' process, the length of time that a certain kind of carbon has been giving off its natural radiations may now be measured, and as a result many guesses of distant dates have recently been sharply revised.

Man in his earliest stages depended on whatever he could find to eat in the wilderness about him, and he had little need for



clothes or shelter because he lived in the warm regions of the globe. But gradually the climate changed as the most recent ice age came on. Animals migrated southward to warmer climes, and man must have retreated too. Yet all mankind did not migrate the whole way to the warmest regions. Rather, some groups sought shelter in caves and looked to hunting to provide them with food and clothing. Without knowing it, man had started on the long struggle to master his surroundings as well as to live with them.

Man was particularly well gifted. It is true that some of the animals he hunted were larger, stronger or faster in motion than he was, but he had abilities that enabled him to overcome them. He had courage, a devotion to members of his family, and the ability to work with others of his kind in a common effort. Above all, he could learn: he had that most priceless gift, a complex brain — that mysterious mass of tissue in his skull that enables him to do more than merely see the world around him. Thus man could devise ways of using the things that he found about him, of developing tools and weapons, and in this way, of greatly increasing his own power. Indeed, unlike other creatures, he could act to change his environment. And so, starting from an exceedingly primitive state, man slowly progressed through many stages of

adapting and mastering his surroundings and improving his life.

Mankind at first knew nothing of fire, except that which was started by accidents of nature. Like the animals, men must have fled in wild terror from its awesome power. But one day someone found that by rubbing two sticks of dry wood together briskly he could start a fire of his own. Fire became a useful servant. It gave heat, cooked food, pushed back the darkness of the night, and offered protection against animals. Control of fire gave man new power, and was one of the first big advances toward civilization.

Furthermore, primitive man acquired more than his own strength for his protection and for the hunting of food. He learned to select hard flint stones to hold in his hand as a weapon or to use as a cutting tool. The edges were sharpened by chipping small bits off them with another stone. Many, many years later man found that a better edge could be obtained by using careful pressure, rather than hard blows, to take off small chips. In time he made excellent stone hand-axes, sharp knives and arrowheads, spears, daggers and many other stone implements. Bone also was used in the making of weapons and implements. Clothing was made from skins and furs and sewn with bone needles and animal sinews.

People gradually learned to tame wild animals. Probably the first animal to trust man was the dog, which became a favoured companion and helper. Perhaps the experience with the dog suggested the taming of other animals. At any rate, men began to keep cattle, pigs, goats and sheep. Thus a supply of meat was ensured and cattle and goats also supplied milk. Horses and camels came into use for carrying loads. In various areas a remarkable change from hunter to herdsman took place, and in this another stride toward civilized life had been taken.

From very early times man ate berries and fruits, seeds and some roots, all of which he found growing wild. Perhaps some seeds sprang up that had been dropped by accident near caves or dwelling places, and so it occurred to people that by planting the proper seeds nearby, a handy supply of food could be obtained.

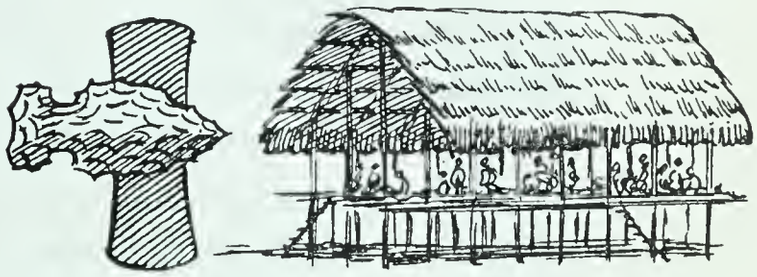
After much trial and error men learned to grow barley, wheat, millet, peas and other crops. And so farming began, and man made a giant step forward as he started to seed and crop the world's rich topsoil.

As farmlands required a fixed population to look after them, wandering hunters or herdsmen became permanent farmers living together in villages. Man's life grew more settled and orderly. In time, some villages even grew to become towns, with a higher and more complicated kind of life. In fact, what may truly be called 'civilization' now started to take shape, once permanent farming and settled communities had developed.

Furthermore, some six thousand years ago it was found that by heating certain stones a soft metal – copper – could be set free, although it was too soft to use for anything but ornaments. Hundreds of years later, when copper was mixed with another metal, tin, a new much harder metal called bronze resulted; and this could be made into weapons and implements far better than those of wood and stone. And so man's use of metals really began.



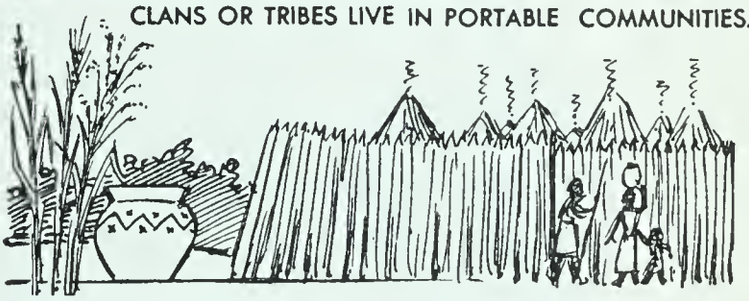
MAN LEARNS TO USE FIRE.
SMALL FAMILY UNITS LIVE IN MAKESHIFT DWELLINGS.



INVENTION OF STONE TOOLS.
FAMILY GROUPS LIVE IN SEMI-PERMANENT DWELLINGS.



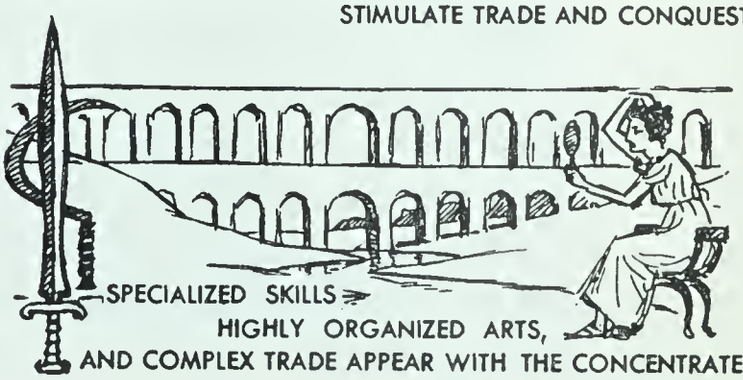
MAN DOMESTICATES ANIMALS.
CLANS OR TRIBES LIVE IN PORTABLE COMMUNITIES.



PLANTS ARE DOMESTICATED. SKILLED POTTERY DEVELOPS.
GROUPS SETTLE DOWN IN SEMI-PERMANENT
FARMING COMMUNITIES.



MARKET PLACES AND TOWNS APPEAR.
BRONZE ORNAMENTS AND WEAPONS
STIMULATE TRADE AND CONQUEST.



SPECIALIZED SKILLS
HIGHLY ORGANIZED ARTS,
AND COMPLEX TRADE APPEAR WITH THE CONCENTRATED
WEALTH AND LEISURE OF
THE GREAT EMPIRES.

SOME STEPS IN MAN'S MARCH TO CIVILIZATION

For many centuries it was bronze with which men worked and warred. Then, about 1500 B.C., ways of producing iron from ore were discovered.

Iron could be shaped, tempered, or sharpened to produce stronger articles and more powerful weapons than those of bronze. Peoples possessing the new weapons quickly overran less fortunate groups. This was the dark side, perhaps; but the conquest of metals opened up bright new possibilities for human advancement, as man learned to tap the earth's mineral resources in order to gain a more comfortable and secure life. Today man's advancement through the development of metals still goes on. Where, for instance, would our modern industrial world be without steel and aluminum, which have both only come into wide use within the last hundred years?

At any rate man had made wonderful progress in adapting himself to the world and in learning to use its resources long before we have any written record of his activities. Nor should we think of prehistoric peoples as mere savages. It is certain that they recognized there was some higher power than themselves, and therefore developed forms of religion. They had the power to express their thoughts, even if there was as yet no way of writing them down. In fact, many myths or folk tales that we know of today go back far beyond our recorded history, and perhaps they have been handed down by word of mouth, from family to family, from the very dawn of human civilization.

Early men could also use their hands for more than hunting and working. There were skilled craftsmen among them who produced fine weapons and implements or made beautifully worked ornaments. Some had special gifts as artists, and in their drawings and paintings have captured movement, shape and colour with great skill: for instance, in the famous cave-wall paintings of men and animals at Montignac, France, which are still fresh and realistic although perhaps 30,000 years old. These are not the works of mere savages, certainly. They are striking achievements that mark the beginnings of what can be called man's culture.

4. Man and Geography

We have seen how the world was moulded, and how man began to live on it and to use its great natural resources – its animal life, as a hunter or herdsman; its plant life, as a farmer; and its mineral resources, as he gained knowledge and skills. We have seen, in short, how man began to work with his environment, and so began to advance in civilization. But before we trace the story of his development further towards our present day, we must look more closely at the environment itself, in order to appreciate how greatly it affects his whole life.

This study of the environment, of man in his surroundings, is really geography; and a knowledge of world geography is vital to any understanding of great human problems, today or at any other time. And so, before we go on with the story of mankind – or history – let us pay closer attention to the great forces of environment that have influenced it throughout. Here we must talk of 'environmental controls', the forces of nature that shape the environment, and do much, therefore, to control the whole pattern of man's life in the world. For what he does for a living and how he lives is largely the result of the environment, as may easily be seen by comparing a fruit grower of southern Ontario with an Eskimo in the frozen Arctic. The great control of climate is plainly at work here. Other controls we must discuss are vegetation, soil and surface features. And then we shall see how man responds to them, and to what extent, perhaps, he may rise above them.

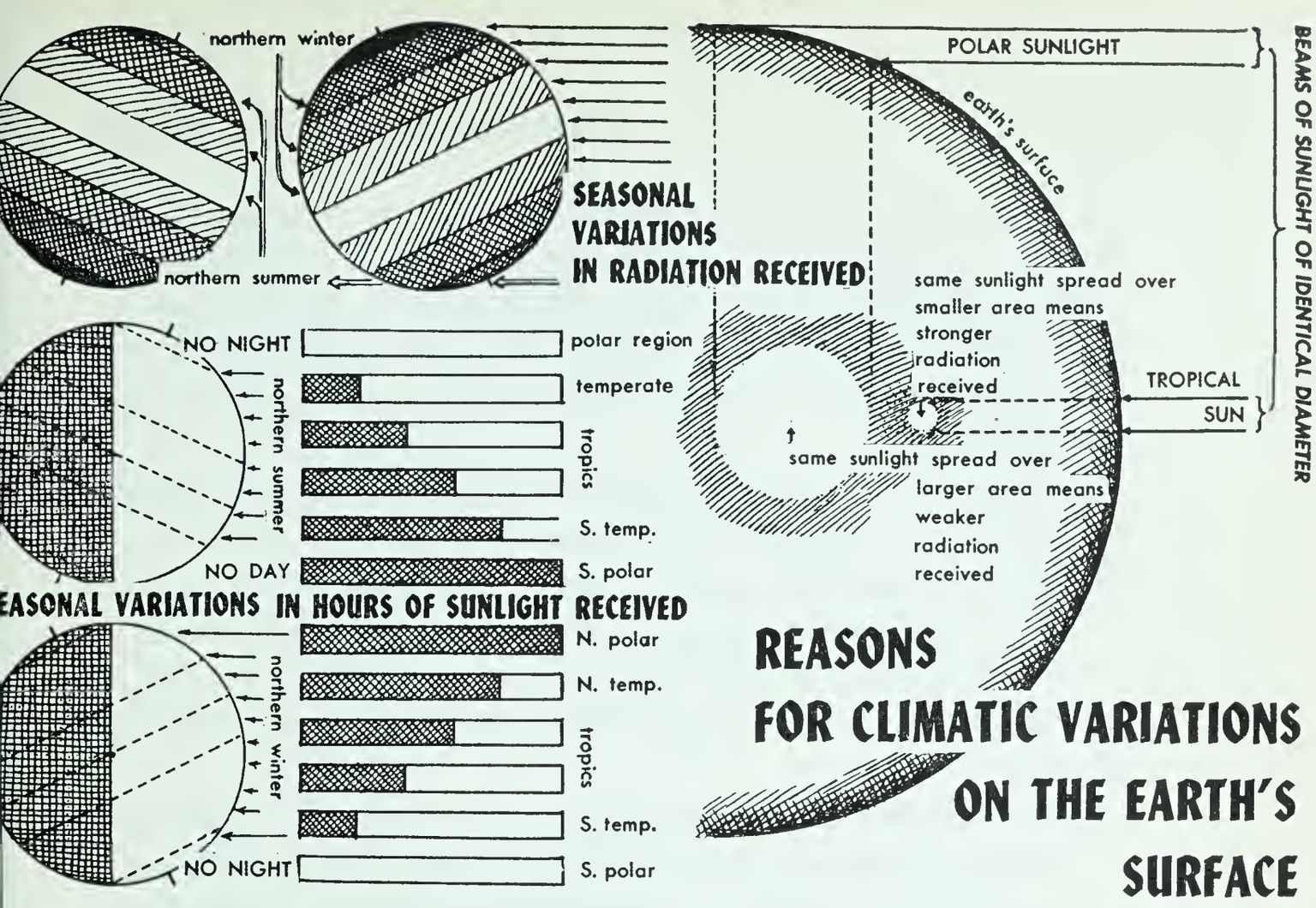
(a) Climate, Vegetation and Soil. The climate of any region consists of various factors such as temperature, winds and rainfall. We shall begin with temperature, which depends mainly on the heat that falls on the earth's surface from the rays of the sun. The position of a region in relation to the sun determines the amount of sunlight it receives. Towards the equator, the sun apparently rises high in the sky and gives much heat. Towards the poles, it does not seem to rise very far and gives little. We say 'apparently' and

'seem' because, of course, in actual fact it is the earth and not the sun that is moving. The spinning motion of the earth causes day and night, and its movement around the sun causes the changing seasons of the year.

According to the position the sun reaches in the sky at different points on the globe at the changing of the seasons, certain major lines of division are drawn between the equator and the poles, known as the Arctic and Antarctic Circles, and the Tropics of Cancer and Capricorn. Using these lines as boundaries we can distinguish five large temperature belts. The area between the tropics is generally hot, especially near the equator. Here the direct rays from a sun that is almost overhead throughout the year fall vertically on the ground, giving high temperatures at all times. This is the 'winterless' region of the earth. The two areas between the arctic circles and the poles are generally cold. Here the sun never rises very high; its slanting rays strike the earth at a broad angle and the heat is spread over a large area. Temperatures are therefore low all year. The two areas between the tropical and arctic zones, often called the temperate zones, have wide variations in temperature from the cold of winter to the heat of summer, for the amount of sunlight they receive changes greatly as the earth moves around the sun.

Within these broad divisions, however, temperatures are by no means constant. Other factors affect temperature besides distance from the equator. Large bodies of water have a moderating effect on the climate, reducing the extremes of heat and cold. Hence Canada's Pacific and Atlantic coasts have milder winters and cooler summers than the inland Prairie Provinces. The effect of the ocean itself is not always the same, for it will depend on the type of current which bathes the shores of a continent. Thus the warm Gulf Stream gives the British Isles a mild climate although they lie as far north as chilly Labrador.

Elevation also has an effect on temperature, since the atmosphere cools at the rate of about three degrees for every thousand feet above sea level. High mountains at the equator may have all



the variations in temperature from a hot base to a peak that is snow-clad throughout the entire year, as is the case in the tropical Andes of South America or at lofty Kilimanjaro in Kenya, Africa.

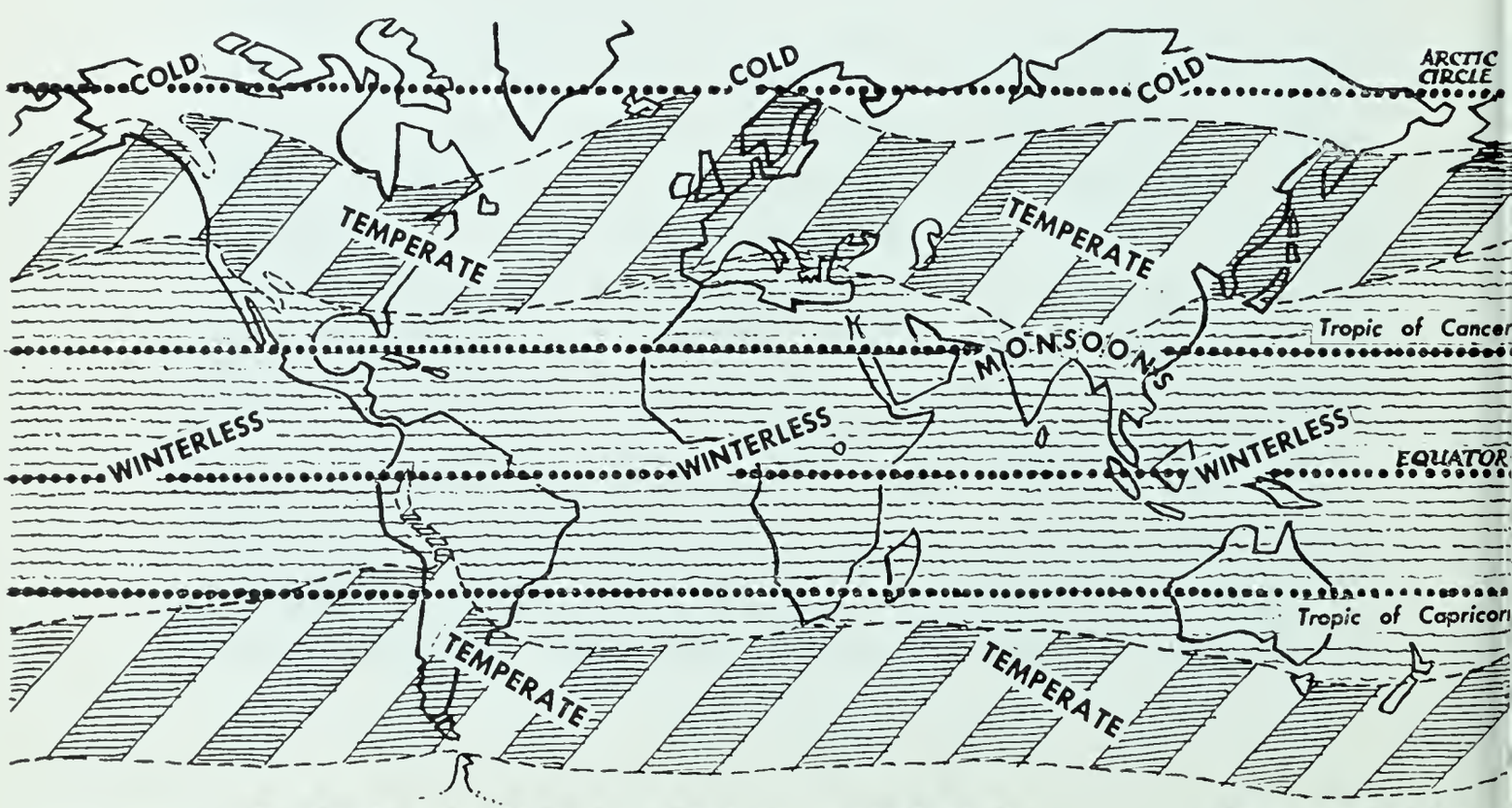
The variations in temperature from one zone to another are directly responsible for a second important element of the climate: the wind systems of the earth. As with temperature, so with the winds, we can distinguish a general pattern. Thus there are the northeast and southeast trade winds blowing toward the equator within the tropics, and the westerlies of the temperate zones. However the great land masses have the effect of breaking up the regular pattern of winds, thus producing many local variations and in certain areas, notably southeast Asia, introducing the phenomenon of seasonal or 'monsoon' winds that blow landward in summer and seaward in winter.

The third important element of the climate is the rainfall, which involves not only the amount of rain that falls on a region but also its seasonal distribution throughout the year. Most of the rain that falls on the land comes from the oceans, where heat from

the sun steadily causes moisture to evaporate into the air. When this moisture-laden air is forced to rise it is cooled and some of the water in it will condense to form clouds or rain, because cool air cannot hold as much water as warm air. Three types of rain can easily be recognized according to the way in which the air was caused to rise.

1. The rain of equatorial areas where hot moist air is constantly rising and cooling simply because it is light in weight.
2. The rain which falls on the windward side of mountain ranges as moist air is forced upwards. In our own country the westerly winds blowing off the Pacific and up over the Coast Range make the coast of British Columbia the rainiest part of Canada.
3. The rain which falls when warm light air from tropical seas rises up over cold heavy air from the polar regions. Of such a type is the rainfall of eastern Canada and the United States, where warm and cold air masses battling over the area produce a very changeable climate with rain spread uniformly over the year.

It is just as important to know why little rain falls on a region



THE PATTERN OF THE WORLD'S TEMPERATURES

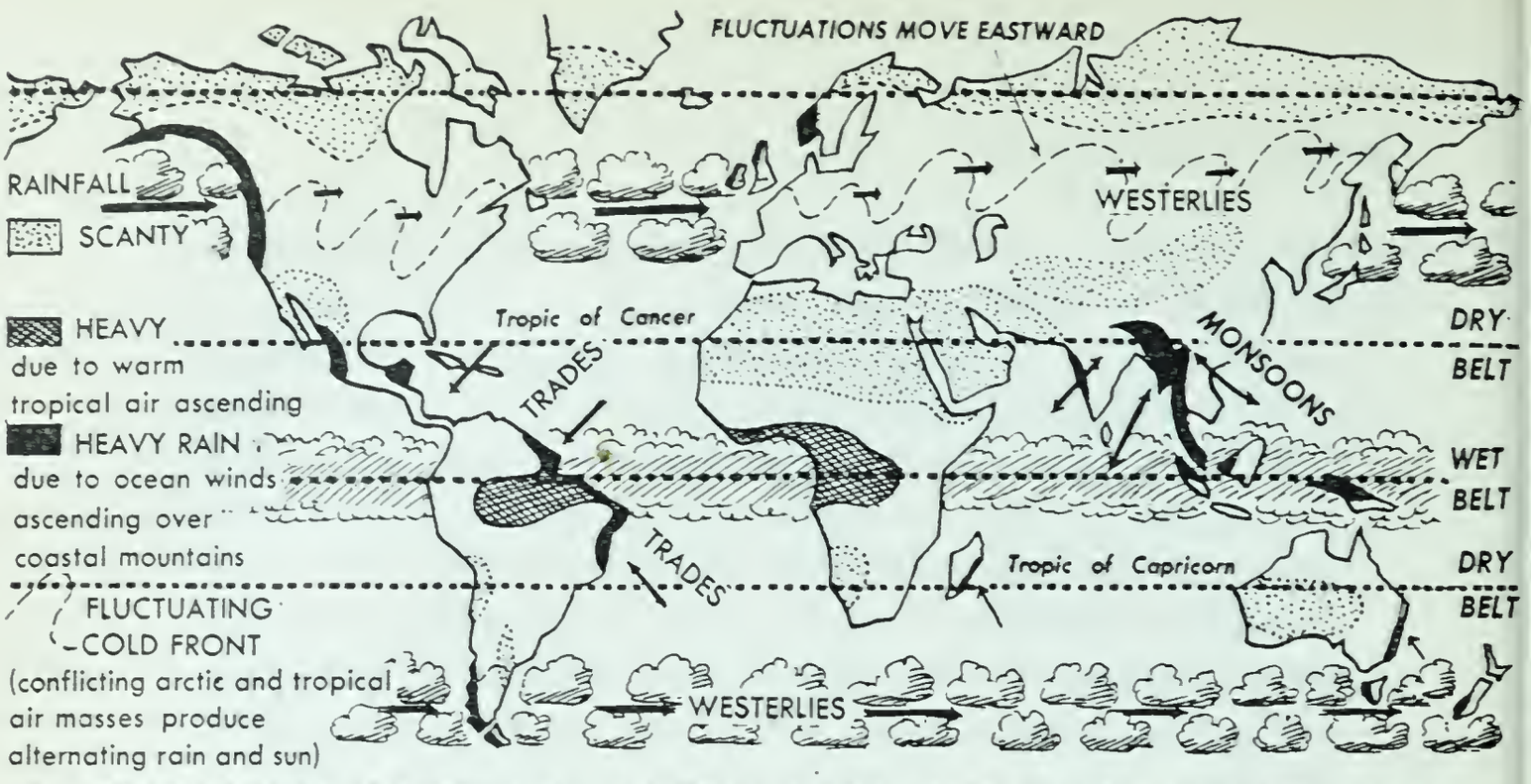
as to know why much rain falls. Three types of dry areas can be distinguished.

1. *The interior of the large continents, far from the chief source of rain.* This is especially true of areas over which the trade winds blow. These winds are warming up as they come nearer the equator and thus are capable of picking up more and more moisture. The Sahara and Australian Deserts owe their origin to such a condition. Note that they extend right to the sea on the west side of the continent because the trade winds blow offshore preventing moisture from the ocean from reaching the land.
2. *The leeward side of mountain ranges.* The air has already lost most of its moisture rising up over the windward side and as it descends on the leeward side it warms up and becomes a drying wind. The low rainfall areas of North America behind the high Western Cordillera are caused by this process.
3. *The polar regions.* The cold air of these regions is heavy and therefore does not rise easily. Also the polar seas are frozen for much of the year and thus the winds blowing over them remain dry.

Another vitally important feature of the environment is the natural vegetation. The type of vegetation in a region depends on the rainfall and temperature and thus the vegetation pattern of the earth is very similar to the climatic pattern.

Generally speaking, rainfall is the chief control of vegetation. Where the annual rainfall is over 20 inches, trees of some sort will grow – the heavier the rainfall the denser the forest. Where the rainfall is between 10 and 20 inches there will be a continuous grass cover, as in the North American prairies or the South American pampas. Where the rainfall is under 10 inches the coarse bunch grasses and cacti typical of desert vegetation will be found.

The boundary line between the forest and grass is not sharp. Instead there is a gradual thinning out of the trees. This actually produces two very distinctive types of vegetation. On the cool



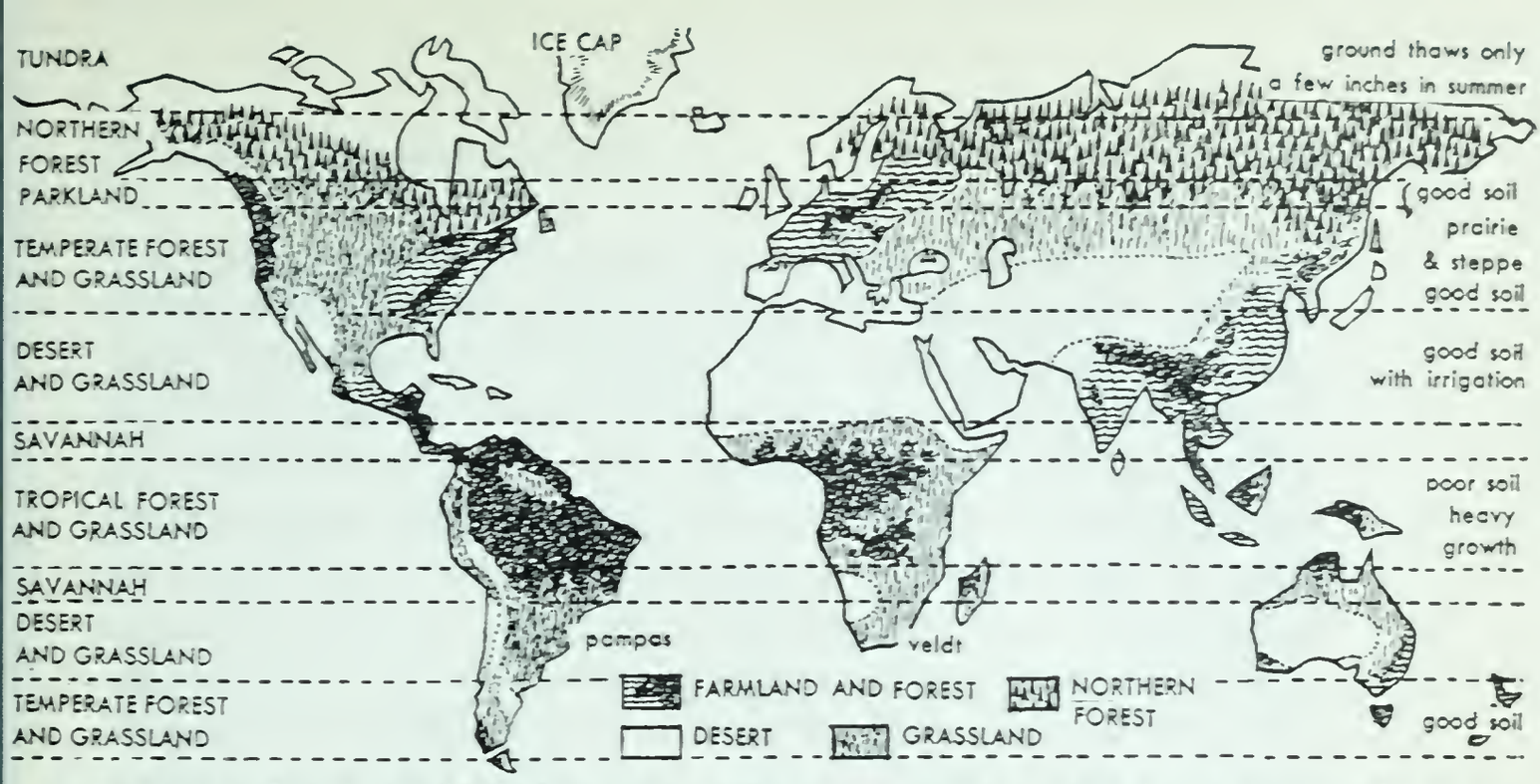
A SIMPLIFIED PATTERN OF THE WORLD'S WINDS AND RAINS

side of the grassland is the park land, found in parts of the Prairie Provinces and the mid-west states of the U.S.A. On the warm side of the grassland is the savanna which covers so much of Africa and which is the home of the large wild animals – tigers, lions, giraffes and zebras.

The type of forest depends on the temperatures. Thus in the equatorial region the intense heat combines with the heavy rainfall to produce the world's most luxuriant growth – the dark and dense evergreen rain forest found, for example, in the Amazon and Congo river basins.

In the warmer, well-watered parts of the temperate zones we find the broad-leaved deciduous forests typical of the eastern United States and western Europe. In the cooler stretches of the temperate zones are the coniferous forests found in northern Canada, Scandinavia and northern Russia. Wherever the rainfall is particularly heavy, as on the Pacific coast of Canada and the United States, the forest becomes exceedingly dense. The slopes of the Coast Range in California have the largest trees in the world – the giant redwoods and Douglas firs.

Towards the poles, beyond the coniferous forests, the growing season becomes very short and the ground is permanently frozen.



A SIMPLIFIED PATTERN OF THE WORLD'S VEGETATION AREAS

This combination produces the tundra vegetation of arctic Canada and Siberia – mosses, lichens, dwarf trees and a few hardy grasses.

Closely connected with both climate and vegetation is a third feature of the natural environment: the soil. The soil is the top layer of the earth, composed of ground-up rock varying in size from tiny sand grains to large stones, dead plant and animal matter, living plants such as fungus and bacteria, living animals such as worms, and ants and many smaller insects, and water and oxygen. All these are necessary if the soil is to support plant life. The soil pattern of the earth is remarkably similar to the climatic pattern. Each type of climate, and therefore vegetation, seems to produce its own type of soil.

Oddly enough the soils under the world's richest plant life, the equatorial forest, are among the world's poorest. In fact none of the forest soils are as fertile as the grassland or even some of the desert soils! It will thus be seen that vegetation depends on climate and not on soil. Abundant rainfall, which is so necessary for the growth of trees, dissolves most of the essential minerals in the soil and washes them away. In the grasslands, however, where less rain falls, the minerals remain, and thus the world's finest soils are found in regions like the prairies of Canada and the

Ukraine of Russia. These facts are only now being appreciated by man. The deciduous forest belt which contains much of the most fully developed farm land (eastern North America, western Europe, for example) has not a particularly fertile soil. Centuries of farming have taken much of the minerals so necessary for plant growth out of the soil without replacing them as the natural decay of vegetation does. Crop yields are diminishing, farms are becoming poorer. Fortunately the problem can be solved by using special fertilizers, by planting proper crops and by crop rotation. But there are many farmers who do not yet know of these new methods. Much work has therefore to be done before the problem is solved.

(b) Surface Features and Patterns of Human Life. As well as the preceding environmental controls, surface features also influence the location and activity of people. Mountains in ranges or groups of ranges are barriers to settlement. They are usually thinly populated because of severe climate, rocky soil, and the hardships that must be endured there to make a living. This is true, for instance, in much of Cordilleran North America. Throughout the tropics and in the thickly settled lands of Asia, however, the pressure of population may force people to farm even on the sides of mountains, as is notably the case in Japan. Soil here may be held in place by terraces built and kept in repair by countless hours of human labour.

Where hungry peoples do not search eagerly for land, only the valleys are cultivated, as, on the whole, in the Alps of Switzerland and some neighbouring mountainous European regions. The valleys hold soil and minerals that have been washed down from the surrounding slopes for many years and consequently yield rich returns to the farmer. Elsewhere in the rugged landscape cattle, sheep and other livestock find abundant pastures. Even high up on the mountains herding goes on during the summer months, but the cold winds and snow squalls of autumn send the drovers back to the warm valleys again.

Mountains may possess hidden wealth of mineral deposits, and

during recent years these have been eagerly sought to provide supplies for the industries of man — in the North American Rockies, in the Andes in Peru and Bolivia, and in the Russian Urals. The forest covering of the steep slopes also may contain great reserves of timber. However, much of the mountain forests have now been cut and this unwise stripping of the land has left the soil to the relentless forces of erosion. In addition, the rapid run-off of water down the slopes, without thick forest roots to soak it up, may in turn give rise to fierce floods in the lowlands beneath that do much damage to land and property — and this happens repeatedly with terrible destruction on the great rivers of China, and in some other parts of the globe.

It is on the flat lands that most of the people of the world have come to dwell. Some flat areas may be lofty plateaus, high amid a mountain system. Most of these in the temperate zones are too dry and barren to invite much population, as in the thinly settled high plateaus of central Asia. But in the tropics the plateaus are cooler and more healthful than the lower plains, and are inhabited by vigorous people. This is certainly true in Mexico, Central America, many parts of South America, and large areas of Africa. In India, home of crowded millions, nearly half of the farm-land is actually a low plateau.



THE WORLD'S CHIEF PHYSICAL FEATURES & POPULATED AREAS

But on the lowland plains live nearly 90 per cent of all the world's people. Here the land of past ages has been worn down, and depressions have been filled by materials carried down from higher lands by rivers, and glaciers and wind. Most plains are plains of deposition, formed by materials laid down in water. The largest plains in the world, those of central North America and of much of Russia and Siberia, were once the floors of ancient inland seas. Smaller plains of a similar type exist along the ocean coasts of today — areas where the sea has withdrawn to leave a part of its bed as dry land. The Atlantic coasts of North America and western Europe and the east coast of India are examples. Other plains were the floors of great lakes which existed during the period when the glaciers were melting. The Clay Belt of Northern Ontario and the Red River plain of Manitoba are of such a type. Small but very important plains, called flood plains, are found along the lower banks of the world's large rivers. Two outstanding examples are the Nile plain of Egypt and the flood plain of the Mississippi River. These areas are among the most fertile regions of the globe. At the very mouth of both these rivers and of other great rivers are delta plains built up as the rivers dump their heavy loads of sediment into the sea. These often support extremely large farming populations, as in the Ganges River delta of India and the delta of the Yellow River in China.

Where climate and soil are suitable, the plains are noted for farming, as on the Canadian prairies or Argentine pampas. Moreover, because of ease of transportation, industries may come into being readily, and trade centres rise. Thus most of the world's exchange of trade takes place on plains, especially in western Europe, in a triangle from London to Paris and Berlin, and on the eastern seaboard of the United States. These areas are among the most heavily populated in the world, but unlike the densely settled areas of China and India they have a very high standard of living and very advanced industries.

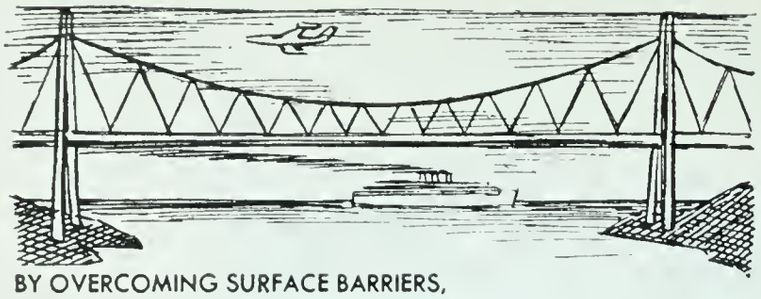
From early times, as human population grew, man spread out from one kind of an environment into another, seeking places

where he could secure food without meeting great extremes of temperature, lack of rainfall and vegetation, or poor soil. People tended to settle most thickly in well-watered river valleys or on coastal plains. In these regions great advances in civilization were made: mighty empires came into being, had their day and fell. But as the more desirable areas became too crowded people had to move to regions where the climate and other controls were less kind.

(c) Man and the Environment Act on One Another. Thus developed a mounting struggle with environmental controls, which has continued to the present day. Some groups of peoples have been forced to accept the environment much as it is, as in the central African jungles. Other people, by tremendous effort, have made great advances for a time, but once the effort was relaxed, they fell back again. Still others seem to have won the best out of their environment and are continuing to alter the effects of the controls wherever possible, as in Europe and temperate North America.

The inventive mind of man has thought of many ways of making environmental controls less limiting. Not only has the problem of insufficient rainfall been lessened by the development of irrigation or dams and storage tanks, but soil has been improved by fertilizers, modern transport has overcome surface barriers, and machines have been invented to do the work of hands. Machines indeed can lessen problems of farming the land, can make use of other resources for industry, if soil or climate are not of the best, and can even offset some of the limitations of climate by providing artificial heat, electric light and air conditioning! New skills and techniques are steadily being sought to deal with the controls of nature. The application of science to agriculture has much expanded the production of food and other crops in regions where formerly frost or heat greatly restricted farming.

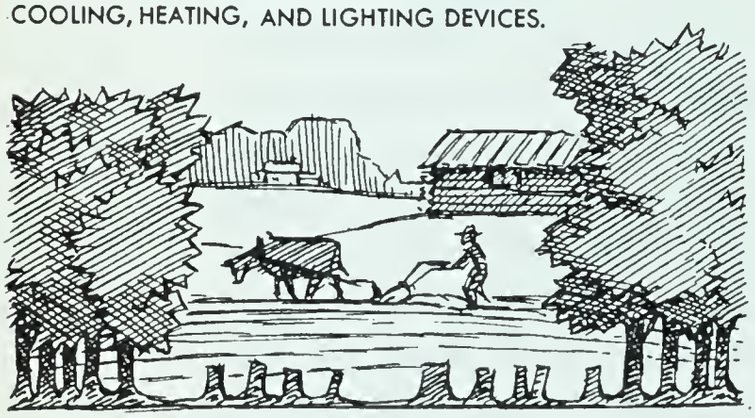
It is of interest to observe that the greatest advances in industrial development and technical skill have taken place within the temperate zones. A cool invigorating climate may have stirred up man's genius for invention, and have led him to make bold efforts



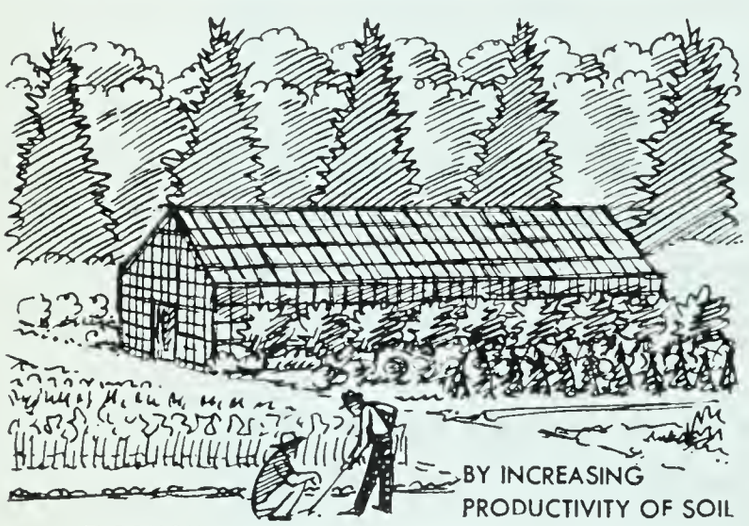
BY OVERCOMING SURFACE BARRIERS,
THROUGH ROADS, TUNNELS, SHIPS, AIRPLANES, ETC.



BY OVERCOMING EXTREMES OF CLIMATE WITH BETTER HOUSING, COOLING, HEATING, AND LIGHTING DEVICES.

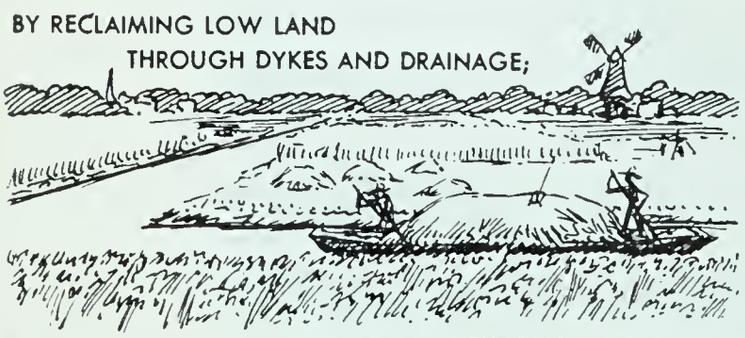


BY CLEARING FOREST AREAS FOR MORE PRODUCTIVE USE



BY INCREASING
PRODUCTIVITY OF SOIL
THROUGH FERTILIZERS AND IMPROVED CROP VARIETIES.

BY RECLAIMING LOW LAND
THROUGH DYKES AND DRAINAGE;



AND DESERTS THROUGH IRRIGATION.

MAN CAN ALTER HIS ENVIRONMENT. 1- FOR THE BETTER

to improve his lot. Moreover, the outpouring of the human mind in these regions, notably in western Europe and North America, has shown itself in far more than merely industrial skills. Great developments in the arts, in government, and in science have also been made. In some way, at least, climate seems to have helped make the temperate regions zones real 'zones of effort'.

In comparison, the hot humid climate of the tropics seems to limit man's ability to master his environment. Certainly the people living in such areas can do little about the persistent rainfall, the sticky heat that discourages vigorous action, or the dense jungle vegetation that makes the growing of food difficult. They are also subject to tropical diseases which sap their vitality. In any case they continue to accept conditions as they find them and follow a largely unchanging, fairly primitive way of life. It appears then that climate makes also for 'zones of indolence' where little is done to improve conditions unless the ideas and driving power are brought in by people from the temperate zones. These facts reveal that man may 'respond' to his environment in different ways. That is, the problems he faces in making his living in various

kinds of surroundings may bring him to act vigorously, to free himself as far as possible from environmental controls, or may lead him to make just enough effort to enable him to exist. In either case we can see that he is being affected by his environment, and is responding to it in one way or another. But we should not forget that man himself also helps to shape his environment. By cutting down the forests, he turns a wild, hunting environment into a settled farming region. By digging the Suez Canal, he transforms the Mediterranean from a land-locked sea to an open road to the East. In short, man and his surroundings constantly act on one another, and the environment is not something fixed and unchanging.

Thus what man does, over the passing years, may well change the way that some of the facts of geography affect him. A particularly good example here can be found in the case of Great Britain. That Britain is an island is a basic fact of geography, and we could not understand her story without it. But at one time this meant that she was readily open to invasion, since even primitive peoples could quite easily cross the narrow seas that divided her from the mainland of Europe. Hence Britain went through a long series of conquests, from the time of the 'ancient Britons' (themselves invaders) to the Romans, the Anglo-Saxons, the Danes and the Normans.

As time went by, however, the British people learned to use and control the seas about them, by developing a great merchant fleet and a powerful navy. Britain was still an island, but now the whole meaning of that fact was changed by what her people had done. No longer were the waters about her beckoning highways for invaders. Instead, thanks to her strong fleets, they became, as Shakespeare says, 'a moat defensive', a secure water-barrier protecting her from Europe's troubles, behind which she could grow great and prosperous. Furthermore, the British people made the great oceans their own wide highways, and ranging freely, thanks to their sea power, they built a vast empire about the world, that eventually grew into our modern Commonwealth.

In a way, therefore, the whole pattern of world geography was changed, for while at one time Britain had been but an unimportant little island on the outer edge of Europe, far from the main centres of civilization, she now became the very centre of the world itself, and changed from a land of forests and scattered farms to a nation of great cities and highly developed industries. This is but one of many examples of how man made a great change in his surroundings by learning to take advantage of them.

Yet quite apart from what man may do to alter or improve his surroundings, nature too makes changes, again showing that the environment does not stay fixed for all time. As in past ages, mountains are slowly wearing away and plains are being built up; and there may be floods, volcanic eruptions or earthquakes that bring fairly violent changes in different parts of the globe. In general, however, nature moves at a pace too slow for us to recognize the alterations steadily going on. But even within the range of human history we can find evidence of many changes that have occurred in the natural environment. In our own day there are signs that the climate of North America is growing warmer again, for the range of many kinds of plant life is extending further north.



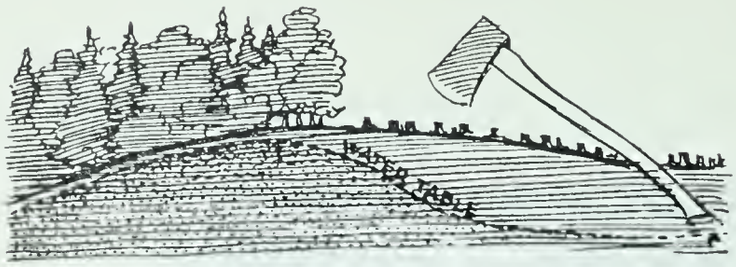
Furthermore, as well as these kinds of changes in the environment — the improvements made by man, and the slow but constant work of natural forces — there are other definitely harmful alterations which man can make, and has made, by misusing his surroundings. Often he can ruin fertile farmland by taking too many crops off it of a kind that exhaust the soil, as has been the case with tobacco and cotton in parts of the southern United States. Proper rotation of crops will do much to prevent this kind

of soil exhaustion, and artificial fertilizers will put back into the soil the mineral elements that have been removed. But there are great areas of abandoned farmland about the world, or areas once rich that now support a population always on the brink of starvation, because of the damage that has been done to the thin layer of top-soil. This truly is a case of man acting on his environment, and with sad result!

Moreover, through the removal of the tree cover, or unwise ploughing, man may speed up the work of erosion in ruinous fashion. Life-giving water, instead of being held in the ground by grass or tree roots, may run off in floods over the surface of the cleared land, washing away the vital top-soil and leaving only dry, barren sub-soils behind. This has happened in much of China, and in North America too. Then areas of slight rainfall that are naturally grassland, as in parts of the western plains of Canada and the United States, may be ploughed up for crops, until in dry years, with no grass cover to hold it, their top-soil blows away in whirling clouds of dust.

Only with great efforts can these man-made deserts be kept from spreading, or be reclaimed for human use. These efforts involve the returning of dry land to natural grass, to use for grazing rather than crop-growing; the use of contour ploughing in hilly country to keep the rain from rushing downhill in gullies that wear away the land; and where possible, the replanting of trees to hold back the water. In fact, what is needed is a programme of conservation, so that man does not continue to ruin his own environment. In varying degrees this is necessary throughout the world.

Another harm that man may do to nature lies in the over-cutting of timber, so that the trees cannot replace themselves fast enough to maintain the forests. This can mean not only the loss of water reserves for nearby farmlands, but also the loss beyond recall of great timber wealth. Forest fires, too, do terrible destruction. Thus man must not only watch the rate of cutting, and perhaps reforest certain districts, but also strive to check fires that are caused by nature—by lightning chiefly—and much worse by human carelessness.



BY CUTTING TOO MANY TREES AND SO DESTROYING
THE WATER SOURCES OF GOOD FARMLANDS.



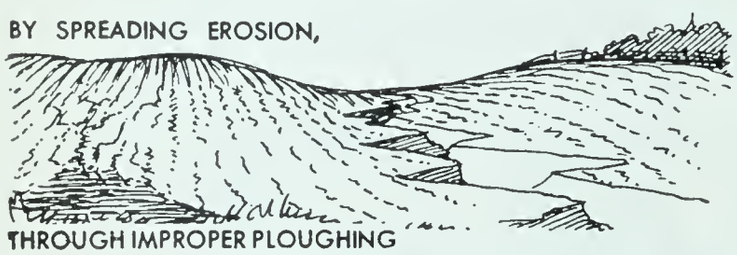
BY DESTROYING FORESTS
THROUGH CARELESSNESS WITH FIRE.

BY EXHAUSTING THE SOIL,
TO PRODUCE SICKLY CROPS

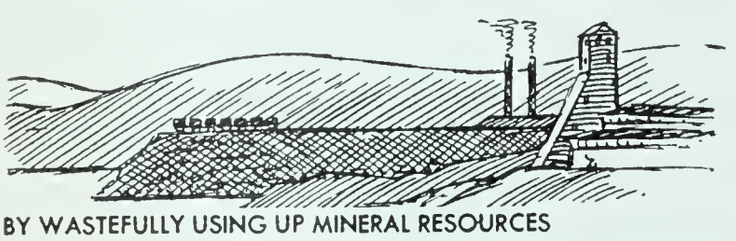


THROUGH UNWISE FARMING PRACTICES.

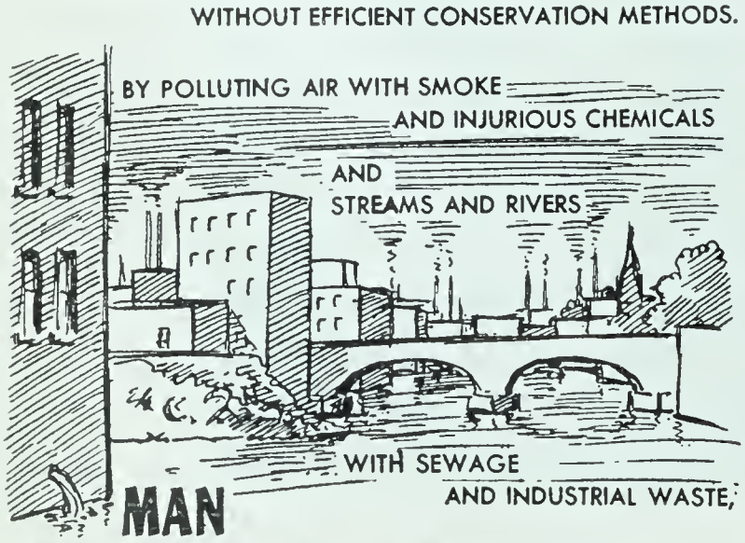
BY SPREADING EROSION,



THROUGH IMPROPER PLOUGHING
OR BY BREAKING UP NATURAL GRASSLANDS



BY WASTEFULLY USING UP MINERAL RESOURCES
WITHOUT EFFICIENT CONSERVATION METHODS.



CAN ALTER HIS ENVIRONMENT.
II- FOR THE WORSE

The burning or over-cutting of forests may, as in our own rugged Shield country, uncover land of little farming value that can only be left to useless bush and scrub. But at least trees will grow again, in time. Mineral resources, however, cannot be replaced. So man must ensure that the riches of the earth are not wasted, or but partly used, once they are tapped. There are oil wells in the United States and eastern Europe, for example, that are now abandoned, though they still contain oil, because they were so badly developed at first that it is no longer possible to extract what is left. And there are coal fields in Britain and western Europe that, because they were so wastefully handled in the past, are now very expensive to keep in production. Again sound conservation of mineral resources is needed—for peoples in all parts of the globe.

Undoubtedly the development of mineral resources, whether carried on wastefully or not, must greatly affect the environment, since the using up of some resources and the tapping of others can change the whole value of a region to mankind. Thus Cornwall in England and Spain were once noted for their mineral wealth, though now most

of it is gone; while today former 'wastelands' in Canada's Labrador and Northwest Territories have a whole new meaning for the world due to the riches that are being taken from their rocks. But here we come close to the pattern of world geography as we find it today, and to that subject we may now turn.

5. World Geography Today

(a) Major World Regions and Countries. Despite the fact that man has been able to do something about environmental controls, the world's population remains concentrated in the most desirable regions of the globe. The area of the earth's surface is approximately 197 million square miles. About 70 per cent of it is covered by the oceans, and only 55 million square miles is land. About ten million square miles is too dry or cold to support settlement and of the remaining forty-five million square miles about half maintains only a scattered population. Thus most of the world's people are located within twenty-three million square miles of land. Even in these areas the distribution of people varies greatly. In general, of course, this distribution stems from the ability of different areas of the earth to support mankind. Let us look at these areas in very broad outline, to gain a better understanding of world geography.

Beginning with practically empty areas, the first to be mentioned is the last continent to be explored, Antarctica. It is larger than Europe, but it is covered with a heavy mantle of snow and ice, except where great mountain ridges break through or the occasional rocky plain is kept clear by howling icy winds. Antarctica and the surrounding southern ocean has the worst climate on earth — it is called 'the home of the blizzard'. It is almost as devoid of life as the moon. Only penguins come to its shores to breed, and daring men arrive to hunt whales or to explore. But it is an empty land and will likely remain so.

At the other pole of the globe lies the Arctic Ocean, surrounded



Courtesy Miller Services

ANTARCTICA — 'THE HOME OF THE BLIZZARD'

by lands on which some human beings can live. With the exception of Greenland, few Arctic areas are ice-capped throughout the year, but all are regions of perma-frost; that is, regions in which the frost never leaves the ground completely, even in summer. In North America, the Eskimos depend mainly on the sea to supply them with food and clothing. They also hunt the animals of the wastes, and generally move from place to place. During recent years some have taken to the herding of reindeer on the meagre tundra vegetation, as do the Lapps and other tribes in the Arctic lands of Europe and Asia (Northern Norway, Sweden, Finland, far northern Russia and Siberia). Under these conditions it is not surprising that the Arctic tundra lands remain nearly empty of people.

Other empty regions of the globe are the deserts. They may vary greatly in temperature, and some are rocky while others are sandy; and some are hilly and even mountainous while others are flat. All deserts are alike, however, in being extremely dry, for reasons which have already been discussed. The deserts of the southwest-

ern United States are probably the best known to us because they are subjects for movies, stories and songs. Death Valley and the great irrigation dams of the Colorado are indeed familiar. The desert regions of Chile and Argentina are not so well known. But the largest desert in the world, of course, is the Sahara of Africa. In fact, the vast reach of desert of which the Sahara is a part stretches across North Africa and Egypt and continues into western Asia through Arabia; it includes southern parts of the Soviet Union, and ends in the Gobi desert of China. Empty or near-empty desert lands are also found in Pakistan, in the Kalahari Desert of South Africa, and in the heart of Australia.

People, no less than plants and animals, depend on water. The few parts of the desert in which they can make permanent homes are those where supplies of underground or river water are available. Vegetation likewise develops around such springs or water holes, and these oases form green gems in the harsh dry lands. Though irrigation can also bring green fields to the desert and is now making great advances in parts of Asia, these cases are the exceptions. Today most of the desert wastes still remain empty of all but small wandering bands of herdsmen moving from water hole to water hole.

In marked comparison to the deserts are the tropical rain forests with their rapidly growing vegetation and abundant animal life. But climate, vegetation, insects and tropical diseases make these lands very unattractive for settlement. Like the deserts, they remain almost without population. Such conditions apply to the Central American lowlands and the vast Amazon basin of South America, to much of Africa south of the great deserts, and to the Malay Peninsula and the islands of the East Indies. It is no wonder then that the natives of these areas have failed to advance much beyond the lowest levels of existence, and still live as very primitive farmers or as hunters.

Turning to the lands of southern and eastern Asia we find a different picture. Here is the most densely populated region of the earth: hundreds of millions of people – over half the world's popu-



Courtesy Miller Services

CONTRAST THE METHODS OF ASIATIC AGRICULTURE . . .

lation — crowded together in river valleys and coastal plains, living mainly by intensive farming. The surface features of this area are extremely varied: the very high and forbidding ranges of the Himalayas; the world's highest and largest plateau, Tibet; the low and fertile lava plateau of southern India; the flood plains of all the great rivers; the volcanoes of Java; the complex mountain chains of Japan where earthquakes are so frequent. The climate is in general favourable. Temperatures are high (except in north China) and the rainfall is heavy with most of it coming in the summer when the monsoon winds are blowing onshore from the sea.

The methods of farming that we know are almost absent in Asia. The Asian farmer still raises his crops in much the same way as his ancestors of long ago. He works only a small plot of land because he tills the soil with hand tools, aided, if he is lucky, by a bull which draws a primitive wooden plow. The soil is worked with great intensity and produces extremely high yields per acre. The main food crop is rice, although in northwest India and northern China where the climate is cooler and drier, fields of wheat, millet and soybeans take the place of the rice paddies. But even with every available acre of land under cultivation including the terraced slopes of mountains, and with large quantities of fish from the rich seas around Japan, not enough food is produced to feed so many people. Millions starve to death every year. What makes the problem even more desperate is that the population of all these countries is



Courtesy Miller Services

. . . WITH THE METHODS OF THE WESTERN WORLD

increasing at a high rate. This means still more over-crowding and still more mouths to feed. What is the solution?

We see still another picture in the countries of the cool temperature zones of other continents: in Europe, North and South America and Australia. Here the cool and changeable climate seems to give men extra energy. Thus in the countries which have abundant natural resources striking progress has been made and the highest standard of living in the world has been achieved. Some of the older countries like Italy have become somewhat over-crowded and some of the newer ones like Canada and Australia could easily absorb more people, but on the whole there is no real population problem.

The climate is excellent for growing a great variety of crops and so the countries which have large areas of level land have been able to produce all the food they need. Furthermore, the European countries that lack sufficient agricultural land to meet their own needs are able to buy food from Canada, the United States, Australia, New Zealand and Argentina, which have vast areas of farmland and can therefore produce more food than they themselves require. Moreover, all these countries have made spectacular advances in industry and can turn out large quantities of goods. Therefore they have become the chief traders in the world.

Manufacturing skill has also produced the superior power that enabled European lands to win special trading privileges from

Asian countries and to establish colonies overseas. They also invested large sums of money in opening up the natural wealth of less industrially developed areas, from Asia to Africa and South America. Industrial strength, in fact, made Europe the centre of world affairs; and though leadership has now passed to the United States, Europe still represents a very great power in the world.

Another great world area belonging partly to both Europe and Asia is the Soviet Union which includes European Russia, Asiatic Siberia, and many other territories great and small. Here is another region of very large population, but also one of huge extent. The Soviet Union is the world's biggest country, and has many thinly populated areas, so that it cannot be compared with the overcrowded Asian lands we have considered. Furthermore, it has rich resources in soil, minerals and power, like Western Europe or North America, and is rapidly building up its industrial strength. Yet its standard of living is far from being as high as that of the western countries, its resources, over all, may not be as extensive, and it has great barren cold stretches. We might best place the Soviet Union between the Asian and western countries, therefore, in this discussion of main world geographic areas and peoples.

(b) Questions of Production and Resources. We must not ignore the fact that the needs of the modern machine age also greatly affect the pattern of world geography today. To be strong, countries rely more and more on developing their industries, and industries require skill, power and raw materials. Power comes from coal, or water power, or petroleum. Coal is found throughout the world, in large quantities in all continents except South America and Africa. Britain, western Europe, the United States and Canada make great use of their extensive coal reserves. Russia and China have rich supplies, but they are not as well developed.

Electricity from water power and from steam is developed to a considerable degree in all the advanced industrialized regions, especially in Canada, the United States, Scandinavia and Italy. It is used to a smaller extent in Russia, but little in South America, and in Africa it is not developed at all. Petroleum comes from four

main regions: North America, all the way from Mexico to Canada's Northwest Territories; western Asia, from the Ural Mountains south to Iraq and Arabia; northern South America; and southeast Asia. Many of the industrial nations have not sufficient coal and petroleum to meet their needs, and so their efforts to obtain these supplies abroad have played an important part in world affairs.

As for raw materials, iron, from which steel is made, is the most important of all those used in manufacturing in our 'steel age' of today. Iron ore is unevenly deposited throughout the world. New sources of it are being eagerly sought by most manufacturing countries. Canada, for example, is now developing immense ore deposits in Labrador and northern Quebec, much of which will go to feed the huge American steel mills, as well as our own. Nickel and some other minerals are vitally important for the hardening of steel but they are not abundant. Thus countries which possess them may have great importance both in peacetime trade and wartime production. Canada, for instance, controls 90 per cent of the world's nickel – another indication of how well endowed she is with basic or 'strategic' resources for our machine age.

Recently great interest has been aroused by the search for uranium – a main source of the devastating power of the atomic bomb and a possible source of giant new energy for industry. Large supplies of uranium ore exist in northern Canada, in Czechoslovakia and the Belgian Congo, and there are smaller pockets elsewhere. Other minerals like ores bearing gold, copper or lead, are also much in demand; and in general the need for them or the possession of them can affect the whole pattern of world relations in this complex modern age. For example, its rich deposits of gold, more than anything else, have made largely infertile South Africa a wealthy and advanced country rather than a poor one in the world of today.

As well as power supplies and mineral resources, still other factors are important in shaping our present world, where machine industry and high rates of production so greatly distinguish the powerful and 'advanced' countries from the 'backward' ones. Modern industrial living requires many kinds of raw materials besides

minerals: for example, wood for construction, for paper and cellulose products (could you imagine your world without newspapers and cardboard containers?); crops like cotton, flax and jute for textiles; animal products like leather and wool for a host of uses — and all these quite apart from the food stuffs that must be provided for a big factory population, that produces none for itself. Hence, though power, minerals, and the skills to develop them generally determine the countries which are leading the way in our modern machine age, forest resources and the production of certain big crops for food or industrial use may also greatly affect a nation's world position.

For instance, Australia now has a particular place in the world because of its great wool production. So has Pakistan for jute, the southern United States and Egypt for cotton, and Malaya and the East Indies for natural rubber. Again, Canada, as well as being well supplied with power, food, and mineral resources, is specially noted for her forest 'crops': the biggest part of her exports to the United States is made up of pulp and paper. And certain countries or areas are important as producers of great amounts of special food crops, such as coffee in Brazil or Colombia, cocoa in West Africa, sugar-cane in Cuba and the West Indies, and tea in Ceylon and India. The list could go on and on; but



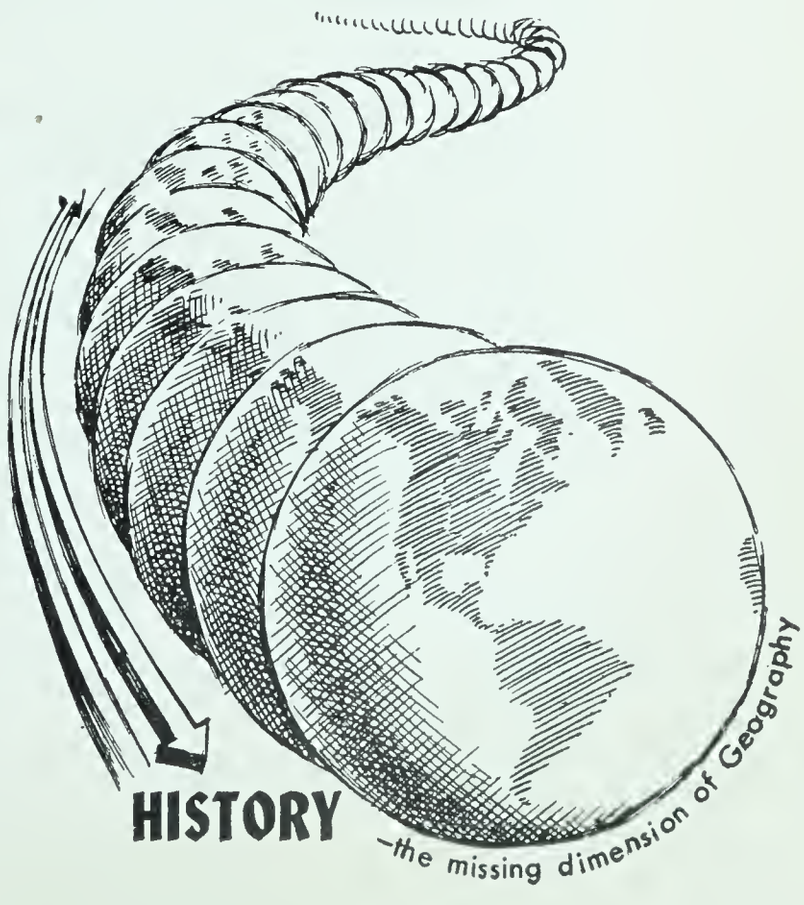
WORLD SOURCES OF KEY MATERIALS IN OUR MACHINE AGE

enough has been said to suggest that the way in which raw materials and products are distributed among the countries of the world shapes the whole flow of international trade today, and greatly influences the relationship of all the world's peoples.

We should perhaps remind ourselves that not only the distribution of resources and raw materials, but also the degree to which they are developed and used affects the picture that we see. For instance, Britain is a small country with coal resources that, although considerable, cannot compare in extent with China's. Yet the island kingdom is a leading industrial power, because she has developed her factory production based on coal, while big China is still a backward nation. Thus industrial activity as well as amount of resources must always be kept in mind in judging the pattern of world geography today.

Then too, a country may produce a great quantity of some item, but because of its own needs, still not have enough for a profitable trade with the outside world. India produces a great deal of wheat, but because of her huge population she often cannot supply even her own needs, let alone trade any quantity outside; while Canada, with her small population, produces a big wheat surplus which makes her a leading world wheat trader.

All this suggests once more that there is no fixed and simple geographic relation between man and his environment — a lot depends on what he does with it, so to speak. Since man and his environment are always acting upon one another, the very patterns of geography and human activity may change over the years. For example, 'rock oil' (petroleum) was of little value except for patent medicines till the internal combus-



tion engine was developed for cars and aeroplanes. Now, as a result, Arabian deserts and Alberta prairies have a new significance because of their wealth of petroleum. Man develops atomic energy, and very soon a whole 'Uranium City' appears in the rocky wilds of northern Saskatchewan that were once just a barrier to settlement.

To go further back, most of North America was at one time a silent wilderness, barely supporting a handful of native Indian tribes. By applying great human energy and organization, men from Europe turned a large part of it into the wealthy populous United States, the world's most powerful country. Similarly, energy, organization and skill enabled once-backward Europe to dominate great Asia, home of glittering empires, so that the small western tail was truly wagging the big eastern dog! Truly, times change and so does geography.

As a result, we must not only look at present geography but also study man's changing life in the world across the centuries. In short, we must examine history as well, if we are to understand the nature of our modern world and see how it came about. And when we do look at the course of history, we will see more clearly that man lives not only surrounded by forces of nature — in the natural environment — but lives surrounded by ideas and beliefs as well, and by close ties with other men — in other words, in a 'human' environment.

He not only learns new ways of growing crops or of building machines to help control nature, but he develops faith and ideas, arts and literature, systems of government and ways of co-operating with his fellows that make his life far more than a mere effort to keep well fed and comfortable. He becomes civilized, in fact, We shall see these things in the next unit, when, without forgetting the ever-present forces of geography, we trace the rise of civilization through the long years of man's history on the globe.

Learn by Doing

1. Discuss the importance of the following as marking advances in civilization: (3)
   (a) the control of fire
   (b) the taming of wild animals
   (c) the use of bronze

2. (a) On a map of the world, mark the chief wind systems. (4, a)
   (b) Discuss the effect of winds on the rainfall of: (4, a)
      1. Northern Africa
      2. Central Australia
      3. Western Canada

3. Compare vegetation, rainfall and temperature maps of the world. Discuss the way in which vegetation is affected by rainfall and temperature. (4, a)

4. Man has struggled to control his environment. He has irrigated the desert, invented machines and applied scientific methods to agriculture. Have three committees present material of specific ways in which man has accomplished these achievements. (4, c)

5. Discuss ways in which man may do irreparable damage to his environment. (4, c)

6. "People are scattered over the earth according to the ability of the earth to support them." Study a population map of the world and discuss reasons for the density or scarcity of population in various regions. (5, a)

7. Discuss India's food problem and suggest ways in which it might be improved. (5, b)

Facts to Know

1. How were the following made during the earth's early formation: (2, a)
   (a) mountains?
   (b) mineral veins?
   (c) igneous and metamorphic rocks?
   (d) soil?

2. (a) List the main factors of nature that control the environment. (4)
   (b) Describe the climate in the equatorial, temperate and arctic zones.
   (c) Locate areas of the world where the temperature is affected by elevation.
3. Indicate briefly the differences in the following types of soil: (4)
   (a) forest
   (b) grassland
   (c) desert
4. (a) Why do most of the people of the world live on the plains? (4, b)
   (b) In what particular area of the world is living on a plateau most desirable?
5. (a) Locate the main desert regions of the world. (5, a)
   (b) Why is there a small population in the tropical rain forests of the world?
6. Describe the life of the farmer in Asia. (5, a)
7. What factors have helped to develop a high degree of material prosperity in Canada and United States? (5, b)

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UNIT THREE

THE GROWTH OF WORLD CIVILIZATION

1. *Populating the Continents*
2. *The Earliest Civilizations*
3. *The Rise of Europe*
4. *European Civilization Spreads about the World*
5. *The Growth of Modern Nations*

1. Populating the Continents

(a) The Races of Mankind. When in a movie newsreel we see dark-skinned people of Africa, blond Swedes or Norwegians, or the wise-looking faces of the Far East, when we talk of different 'races' in our own land, or perhaps just hear other languages spoken by passersby, we well may wonder: "Where did all these kinds of people come from in the first place — and why are they so different?"

They are not really so different. Scientists generally agree that all people belong to the same great natural family, called 'Homo sapiens' (Man the Wise) and that they must have sprung from common ancestors long ago in pre-historic times. Somewhere there

was a 'cradle-land' or Garden of Eden where these ancestors lived, though no one is certain where this might have been. Different locations have been suggested for it: for example, the region in the Middle East between the Euphrates and Tigris Rivers, now Iraq, the high central plateau of Asia, or even the 'lost continent' of Atlantis described in ancient legends. But in any case, wherever man's first home really was, it is thought that people gradually spread out from it into new areas as their numbers increased. Separating into groups, they drifted across the continents through countless passing ages, and thus populated the globe.

Slowly these groups that became the first settlers, or 'aborigines', in different parts of the world adapted themsleves to the various kinds of environment they found. Because of this long process of adaptation, and because certain characteristics might be inherited by one generation after another, they gradually developed special traits of their own, which we now call 'racial characteristics' — for instance, in skin colouring, shape of head, kind of hair, and so on. Characteristics of this sort mark the peoples of the world today, so that they may be divided into three great natural groups: the Mongoloid, the Negroid, and the Caucasoid races. Another way of dividing them, chiefly according to the proportions of the skull, is into three main races called Alpine, Negro and Mediterranean. But the former divisions are very widely used and they are recognized in the *Statement on Race Problems* issued by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. Hence we will follow them here.

At any rate, there are only a few basic divisions of mankind that really deserve the name 'race', though there may be lesser groups of peoples within them, and many mixtures too. Great stress is often laid on the features that mark off one race or group of people from another. Actually there are many, many more characteristics that are common to all races and groups. And we should keep that in mind as we discuss the racial characteristics of the three chief groupings of men.

When we examine the Mongoloids, we find that they have

straight, coarse black hair, yellowish skin and generally round-shaped heads. Their cheek bones are high, and they have dark brown eyes that appear to some to slant – though actually they do not. Mongoloid peoples are found chiefly in northern, central and eastern Asia, and in the East Indies. Also, the original native 'Indians' of the Americas are often considered as Mongoloids, including the Eskimos of the far north. Asia, however, is the main home of the Mongoloid race.

Negroids are found throughout Africa, in parts of southeast Asia, and across the far Pacific islands all the way from New Guinea and Australia to the Fiji group. Descendants of African negro slaves form an important element in parts of the Americas, especially in the West Indies. Generally Negroids have a dark brown skin, which can be so dark it appears black, although in some groups it may be a yellowish brown. The hair of their heads is often frizzy or tightly curled. The head itself is long, the nose usually broad with wide nostrils, the lips tend to be thick and the upper jaw projects slightly.

The Caucasoid race is often called 'white', but its skin colour can vary from white to dark brown. The hair ranges from flaxen or almost white to black, and the eyes from blue to almost black. The hair is usually wavy, but varies from straight to curly. It is not woolly, rarely frizzy as in the Negroids, and is not as coarse or as thinly distributed as in the Mongoloids. The head is moderately long (from front to back), the nose is comparatively narrow and projecting, and the lips tend to be thin. Caucasoid peoples live in Europe, North Africa, in Middle Eastern lands and in large parts of India; and they have, of course, colonized the Americas, Australia and New Zealand as well.



Courtesy United Nations

There are various sub-groups of peoples to be found within these large divisions called races — though the numbers of them named by different writers may range from a few to over a hundred. Scientists, however, have in mind definite physical characteristics of the sort outlined above when they use the term 'race' or try to decide on sub-groupings. In any case, the boundary lines between countries by no means mark the boundary lines between races. Due to the age-old mingling of peoples by intermarriage, there is no such thing as a 'pure' race in any country. There is racial mixture everywhere, to a greater or lesser extent. It is therefore almost impossible to draw firm lines between the peoples of our modern world when we talk about race, and indeed the word is used much too freely and unwisely.

In fact as it is generally used, or misused, 'race' is one of the most confused and confusing terms in the world today. One hears people speaking of 'the English race', 'the German race', 'the Moslem' and 'Jewish' races, 'the American race' and so on. Actually Moslems and Jews are religious groups that contain people of different origins, while the American, English and German peoples are not races at all: they are nations. A nation is a group of people living under the same government, occupying the same country, and having the same general ideals. It may easily be made up of several racial groups, as in the United States with its Negroid and its mixed Caucasoid population, or in Mexico with its mingling of Caucasoid and native Indian stocks. But many people use the term 'race' for a group with the same language, culture, religion, or geographic boundaries — when actually they mean 'nation'.

Furthermore, since the beginning of recorded history, groups of people have been claiming superior abilities and powers for their 'race'. They regard other groups, often smaller ones in their midst, as lower creatures of little worth. Thus, in the name of race, untold suffering has been heaped on humanity — even mass murder. In recent years, for example, just between 1940 and 1950, more than six million people lost their lives because they belonged to a

so-called 'inferior' race. One of the worst examples of such murder occurred under Hitler's rule in Germany, when millions of Jewish and other people who were not of the 'master race' were wiped out. And yet scientifically there are no reasons whatsoever to support any claims for racial discrimination. No race has a special share of intelligence and ability. Some peoples have simply had more favourable opportunities than others — but the natural abilities of men, black, brown, yellow or white, do not vary from race to race.

In short, scientific research supports the Bible's statement that God "hath made of one blood all nations of men for to dwell on the face of the earth". Unfortunately, however, the false idea of racial superiority has had a strong attraction for many people, because it may seem satisfying to think that we are 'naturally' better than others who look different from us in colour or other obvious characteristics. White men in recent centuries have sometimes believed they were naturally superior to all others — though this has not been just their failing alone. Ancient China long held that outside peoples were of a lower form of life, and now, sad to say, people in the awakening lands of Asia or Africa are taking up the false cry of race for themselves.



(b) The First World Migrations. The idea of race, then, is an important one to put straight in our minds before we see how man populated the globe, and how civilizations and nations arose, and finally developed into the world we know today. As we start with the first great movements of peoples, that lie far back beyond any written history, it will be helpful to turn to a world map and note again the main surface features of the globe. For these

greatly affected the patterns of world migration and settlement.

The map makes clear that Europe and Asia are actually not separate continents. They are joined by a vast plain stretching the whole way from the Atlantic to the Pacific, and are thus often spoken of together as 'Eurasia'. This great plain that largely lies across Soviet Russia, has climatic and vegetation belts ranging from the barren Arctic tundra to the fertile grass lands of the Ukraine, which have yielded great supplies of food since the days of man's earliest migrations. The Ural Mountains might appear to be a barrier, running north and south across the plain to divide Europe from Asia. But actually these are old, worn-down mountains which are easily crossed, and the open steppes or grass lands spread out on either side of them.

We should not, however, think that there are no barriers at all in the mighty mass of Eurasia. The Pyrenees Mountains divide Spain from France, the snow-capped Alps circle through Northern Italy, Switzerland, Austria and southwestern France, and the Carpathians of central Europe have always acted as a dam, around which peoples have flowed either to the north or to the south, following the Danube River Valley. Then too, Scandinavia and the Balkans are rugged highland areas, while Asia Minor and many parts of the Middle East are high plateaus dotted with mountains. Broad Russia-in-Asia is also a land with large areas of highlands, and in China lie the lofty plateaus of Mongolia and Tibet, broken by steep mountain ridges.

Yet despite all these high areas and certain lines of barriers, Eurasia from the start was crossed quite easily by primitive man, and by later tribes that followed him. The wide plains and plateaus were open lands that could be traversed from east to west by wandering early peoples who sought pastures for their herds and flocks. The mountain barriers did not really block man's way. Except for the Urals, they mainly ran from east to west, and this, in fact, tended to direct groups on into Europe, and right to its western limits.

The sub-continent of India is cut off from the rest of Asia by

the mighty Himalaya Mountains, and there are only a few passes through them. Hence peoples who found their way into India generally developed a life of their own in the plains and plateaus south of the great barrier, though new waves of people might break in through the passes from time to time. Continuations of the Himalayan ranges extend down through Indo-China and the Malay Peninsula to the islands of the East Indies. It was possible, however, for early man to move down the valleys into this region, and even to go on across the chain of islands with no great distances between them that extend from here southeastward to Australia. But distant New Zealand and other far-flung Pacific islands had to wait to be populated later by a hardy seafaring people, the Polynesians, when they had developed the art of crossing wide stretches of ocean in large well-built canoes.

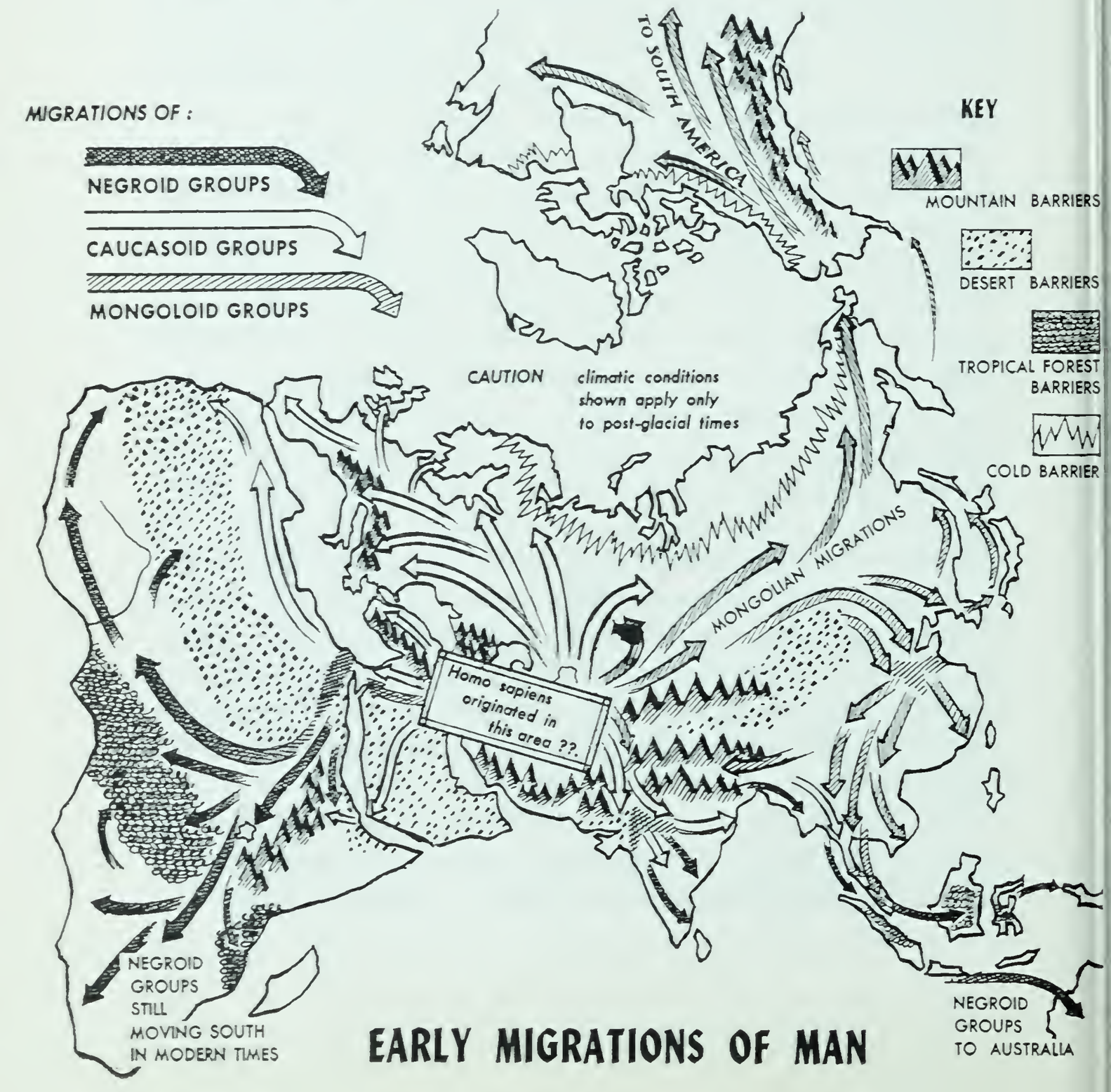
Most of Africa is a vast plateau, with the high Atlas Mountains in the north, and other peaks or ranges widely scattered – though it can be easily entered from Asia in the northeast. The great controlling forces in this continent spring from climate rather than surface features. The burning deserts of northern Africa, the thick rain forests of the centre, and the wide dry plains of the south, did not invite much settlement. On the whole early man moved around them to grasslands or healthy highlands and but thinly occupied the less favourable areas. Negro peoples were still moving south to the better-favoured temperate tip of South Africa when the first white settlers arrived there by sea from Europe.

North and South America have the Cordilleran ranges running like a great back-bone from Alaska to Cape Horn. This in itself tended to turn migration in a north and south direction, and so primitive tribes spread slowly down the whole length of the two continents, finding passes through the mountains and fanning out across the great central plains, and low eastern ranges, right to the Atlantic seaboard.

If we accept the idea that mankind came from a 'cradle-land', then far back in the dim prehistoric past, migrations must have taken place from there along the lines we have suggested. We

cannot prove this, however. It must be based on careful guesses that fit the evidence available and on thoughtful reasoning. And when we follow this approach, the course of the first world migrations, that settled the aboriginal or native peoples where we find them today, appears to have run as follows.

Negroid groups moved or were pushed out of Asia into Africa, where they steadily moved southward. Others – also moving out in a first wave from the cradle-land – found homes in parts of southeast Asia, New Guinea and nearby Pacific islands. Some even reached Australia.



Mongoloids spread out to cover the vast Asiatic areas of Russia, to fill China and Japan, and to move down the valleys of southeast Asia to many islands of the East Indies. The ancestors of the Indians and Eskimos then crossed from northeast Asia to the Americas by way of the Aleutian Islands and Alaska. Over the centuries they became the native tribes and peoples that men from Europe later found in the New World.

Caucasoid peoples moved westward to occupy almost all of Europe. They took over most of North Africa and parts of the Middle East, while other Caucasoid groups passed into India and mingled with Negroid or Mongoloid stocks there. Caucasoid elements also reached Japan, Ceylon and the Pacific islands of Polynesia, where they frequently mixed with Mongoloid groups. In this way, over many ages, our world was peopled.

How long these primitive wanderings took we did not know. Slowly different peoples developed a life of their own, as they learned from the experience of their ancestors. They lived together in clans or tribes and acquired skills and tools to help raise the food and make the goods they needed. At length, in four great river valleys blessed with fertile soil and plentiful water, men had advanced so much that we can say that civilized life had at last appeared — that is, life spent in a well organized community, where there is a good deal of comfort and security, and where arts and learning have developed to make man's existence more than just a struggle for food and shelter. These four important areas were the Nile valley of Egypt, the land between the Tigris and Euphrates Rivers in the Middle East, the Indus valley of India, and the H'wang Ho or Yellow River valley of China. Here then are the earliest homes of civilization in the world.

2. The Earliest Civilizations

(a) Egypt and the Middle East. The Nile valley was protected from outside attack by forbidding deserts

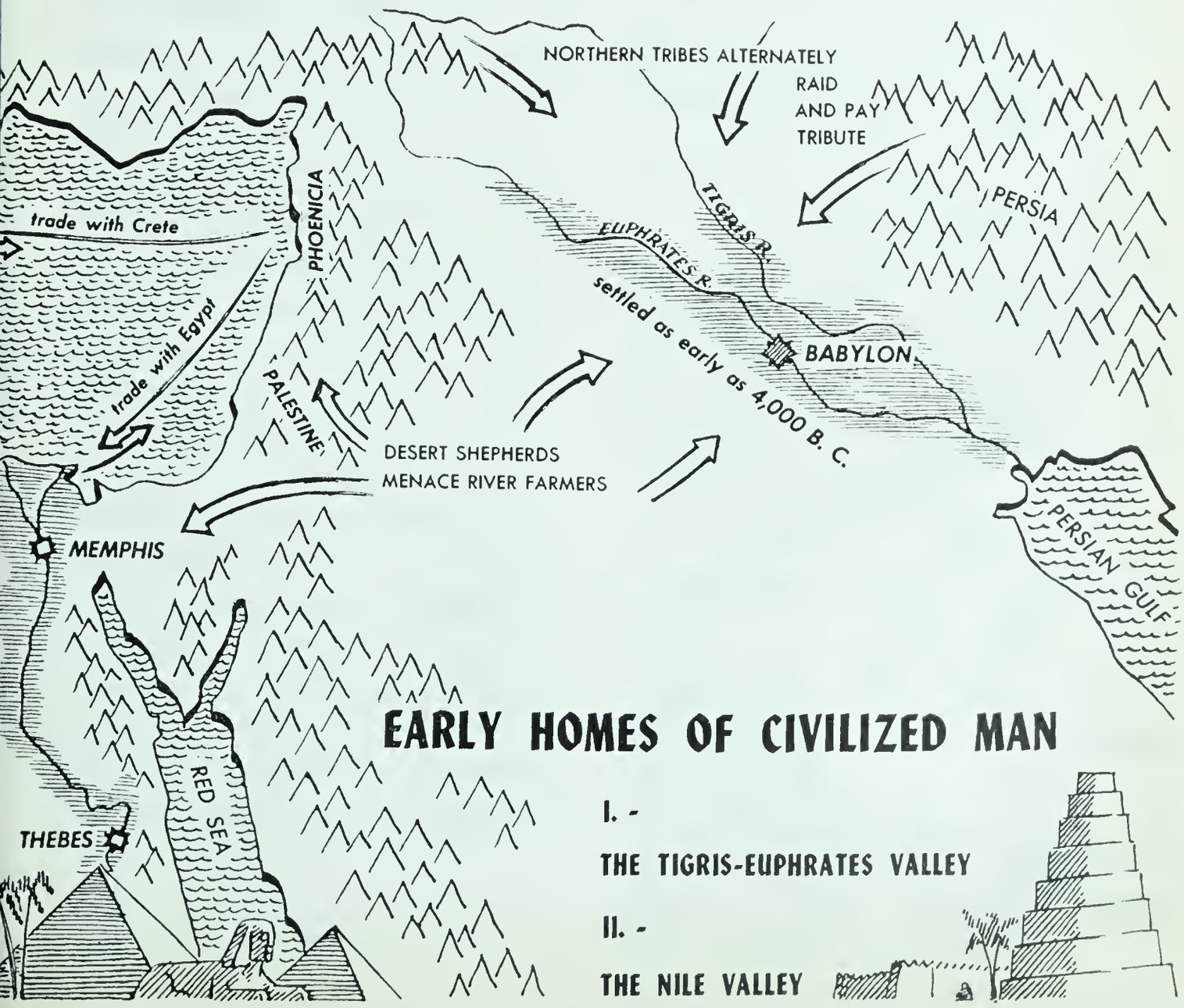
on either side, while its fertile soil was yearly enriched with silt left behind by the flood waters of the Nile. As the population of this well-favoured area increased, however, more and more land was required to feed it. And so the Caucasoid people of the Nile learned to work together in groups to construct dams and irrigation ditches in order to win more crop lands from the desert. During the period between about 4000 and 2000 B.C. many local groups in Egypt united under able leaders, and these communities later came together to form kingdoms. Strong rulers, or 'pharaohs' joined the kingdoms by force; and finally, at its height, an Egyptian empire had spread even beyond the Nile valley, into Palestine, Syria and Ethiopia. Centuries of greatness went by, but at last, in 525 B.C., Egypt was conquered by warlike invaders, the Persians, and from then until the present time has been under foreign rule. Yet the knowledge gained by Egyptian civilization was passed on to other peoples, and much of it has come down to us today.

For example, the Egyptians early mastered the use of metals (chiefly bronze), invented a plough, started a calendar, and developed a system of writing. They wrote the first books on paper, made from reeds and wound in large rolls. They made progress in scientific medicine, and, though they also believed in magic, were strongly religious and believed in a life after death. Some of them became skilled craftsmen, producing delicate ornaments, or sturdy chariots and ships, or fine mansions and pillared temples. Today the greatest remaining examples of Egyptian building are the pyramids which are the mighty tombs of early rulers, constructed with masses of stone blocks averaging more than two tons. Many other remains from mummy cases to manuscripts also mark the skill and artistry of this brilliant early civilization.

While Egypt was rising, great advances were also being made in the Middle East on the 'Fertile Crescent', a narrow belt of good land above the northern end of the Arabian desert, traversed by the Tigris and Euphrates Rivers. The Crescent did not have barriers against attack. It was a central region through which many people travelled, and it was often invaded by warrior tribes from the

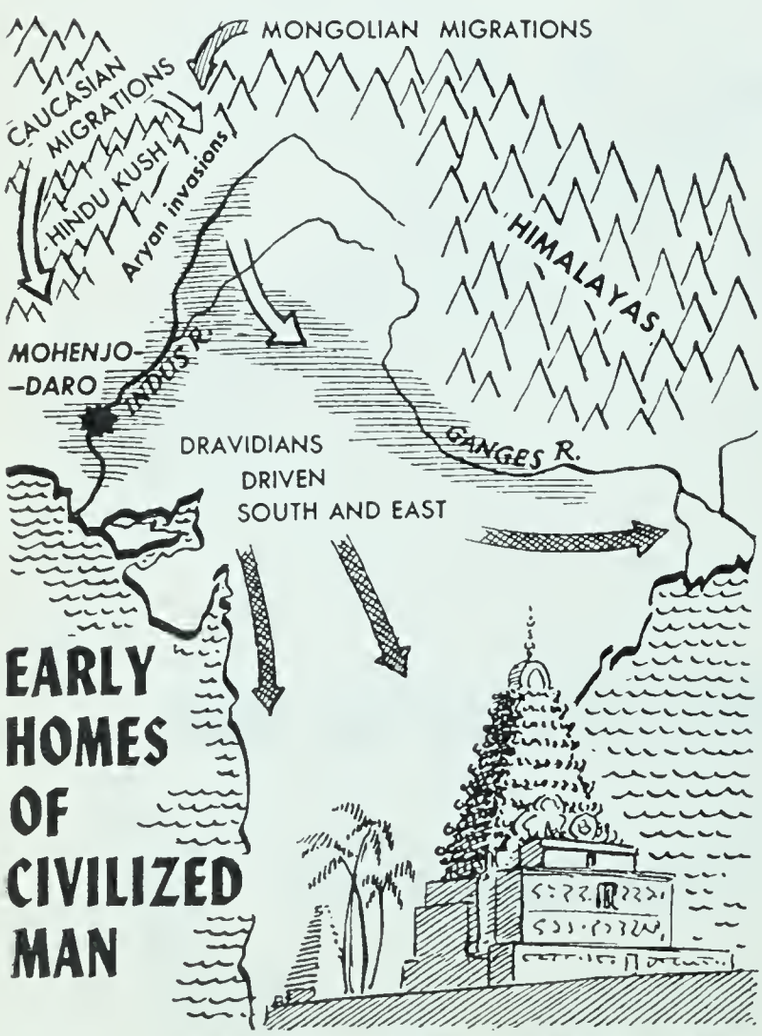
northern plateaus or the southern deserts – Caucasoids who spoke Semitic types of language. Hence, although a number of civilizations developed in this valuable and centrally placed region, each in turn was overthrown. The story is a confused one, but we shall try to pick out a few main points.

A group of people known as the Sumerians established an amazing city civilization in the Fertile Crescent between 4000 and 2000 B.C. They produced a system of writing on clay tablets called 'cuneiform'; they invented the arch in building and made use of the wheel in transportation. Much wealth and trade was centred in their cities, and despite invasions and conquests the Sumerians' civilization was maintained and developed by their conquerors. Possibly the greatest of these was Hammurabi, who around 1550 B.C. made the city of Babylon the centre of his em-



pire, and there prepared the first known set of written laws. In time this empire fell apart, and several others appeared in succession; though wealthy and splendid Babylon long remained important.

In this general Middle Eastern area, the Phoenicians who lived along the coast of Syria and Palestine also built great cities — seaports chiefly, for they were able traders and sailors. They crossed the Mediterranean, and even reached far distant Britain. And they developed a very useful alphabet, from which our own is descended. Then too there were the Hebrews, another Semitic people of Palestine, from whom we have received a belief in one God, the ruler of the universe. The Hebrew religion, the sacred law, including the Ten Commandments, and the Old Testament, form a priceless heritage which is treasured around the world today by Jews and Christians alike — and also by Moslems, who make use of it in their own religion. As for the Babylonians themselves, they made great advances in the study of the stars and in accurate observations of the heavens. From them we have inherited the seven-day period called the week, as well as some early knowledge of astronomy and mathematics.



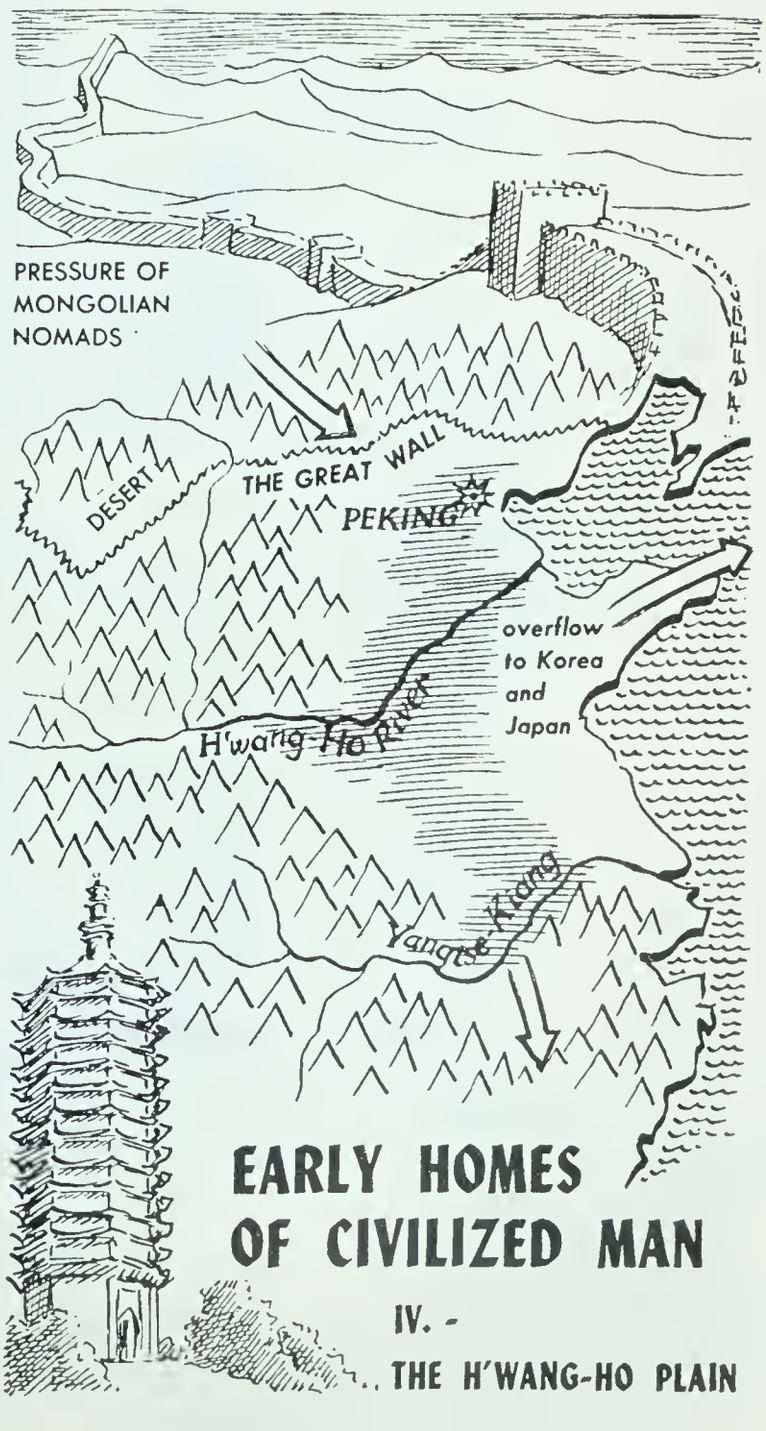
III. - THE INDUS VALLEY & GANGES PLAIN

Babylon was overthrown by the neighbouring Persians, about the time that the latter conquered Egypt. The Persian empire then came to extend from the Mediterranean all the way to India. It worked out methods of efficient government, built excellent roads, and kept law and order over this vast area for centuries. Moreover, the Persian religion founded by Zoroaster had a deep sense of the difference between right and wrong, and it influenced the

growth of later religious ideas. From all these peoples and civilizations, then — Sumerian, Babylonian, Phoenician, Hebrew and Persian — we can see what a mingling of ideas took place on the Fertile Crescent, all of which would benefit later ages of mankind.

(b) India and China. While civilization advanced in the Nile valley and the Fertile Crescent, progress was also taking place in the Indus River valley. As we have already noted, India is separated from other countries by the rugged mountain ranges in the north and is surrounded elsewhere by the sea. Hence trade and the exchange of ideas with other countries was very limited in early ages. Only recently, therefore, has anything been learned about India's early history by digging up and investigating age-old city sites.

In this way the early city of Mohenjo-Daro has been uncovered, to show that a civilization had developed in the fertile Indus valley probably as long ago as 4000 B.C. A dark-skinned people here built great buildings and gained skills in working precious metals, but about 2500 B.C. this civilization seems to have come to an abrupt end. Between that date and 1000 B.C., groups of fairer-skinned Caucasoid people, less advanced but warlike, came pouring through the Hindu Kush Mountains. These invaders were usually called Indo-Aryans, since they spoke a language of an 'Aryan' type, related to many European tongues of today. They conquered the Indian towns on the plains of the Indus and Ganges and estab-



lished a tightly organized kind of agricultural society. That is to say, they divided the people into 'castes', or fixed classes — at the top, priests, warriors and rulers; in the middle, skilled workers, merchants and farmers; then the masses of common workers; and at the bottom, 'out-castes' or untouchables. This caste system was stressed in their religion, known as Hinduism or Brahminism, which has its own highly developed set of ideals and principles. Both left an enduring mark on India for the ages that followed.

During the sixth century B.C. in protest against violence and wars that Hinduism had yet failed to settle, the Indian noble, Gautama (later called Buddha) put forth more simple and personal religious teachings. He won many followers, and his teachings spread out to China, Japan and southeast Asia. Buddha left noble rules for good conduct.

> "Hatred does not cease by hatred at any time; hatred ceases by love. Let a man overcome anger by love, let him overcome evil by good. All men tremble at punishment, all men love life. Remember that you are like unto them, and do not cause slaughter."

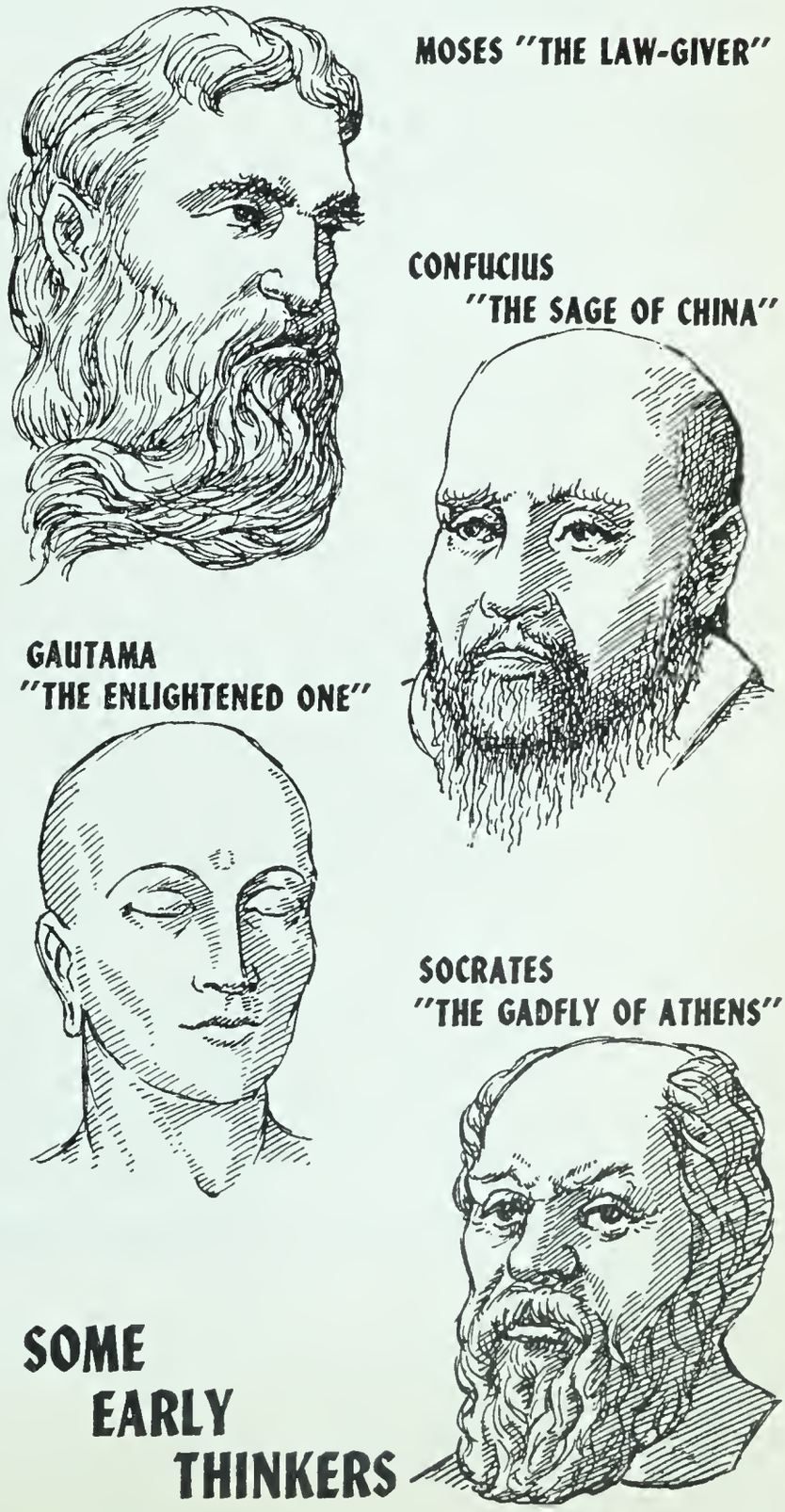
All India was united by force for a short time in the second century B.C. The conquering ruler, Asoka, was sickened by bloodshed, and tried to apply Buddhist teachings to his wide realm. His wise laws gave peace and prosperity. After his death, however, his empire broke up, and disunity and strife followed for long years until northern India, at least, was again united between the fourth and seventh centuries A.D.

In spite of these troubles, a splendid civilization flourished in India, especially in the periods of order, and it influenced many lands. A great literature of poetry, plays and religious works was built up. Universities were established in which medicine, mechanics, philosophy and religion were taught. The study of medicine reached a level here that was not attained in other countries until centuries later. India's mathematicians developed the decimal system, and our so-called 'Arabic' numerals. She also produced outstanding examples of fine art, sculpture and architecture. In their day, her craftsmen

led the rest of the world in the working of metals and in the making of textiles, particularly fine silks and satins.

An extensive trade by caravans and by sea now developed with countries of Asia and Europe, as India, a rich centre of civilization, sent her luxury goods and her knowledge and systems of religion out across the world. It is thus that India has influenced the development of many countries. Unhappily, because she also broke up into warring states and suffered from invasions, she fell at length under a long period of outside control – first by Moslem masters after 900 A.D., and then by Europeans after 1750.

Turning to China, we find that here the story of early civilization is mixed up with ancient legends, and the record is not complete. Apparently, along the H'wang Ho valley, Mongoloid tribes had settled down to village life by 5000 B.C. They worked the land with a stone-bladed hoe, used the bow and arrow, made pottery, and kept domestic animals. Between 2000 and 1500 B.C. the Chinese people of this region developed writing, the casting of bronze, the making of musical instruments, and other crafts and skills. They also came under a strong central government controlled by a family called Shang. In religion they believed in a supreme God, but also worshipped their ancestors.



For several centuries after 1100 B.C. the ruling family or dynasty gradually extended the kingdom to include the Yangtze valley. Trade was encouraged. Government was looked after by well-educated officials or 'mandarins', and great stress was laid on the need for educated men in government posts. An extremely complicated system of writing was developed that has come down to the present day. The Chinese never invented an alphabet but used a vast number of separate characters to express sounds, words and ideas. Thus although China had many brilliant writers, the great mass of people had not the time nor the ability to learn all the characters so that they could read. Today, they largely remain illiterate and will do so unless the language is reformed, though some steps have been taken in this direction.

By far the greatest early Chinese thinker and teacher was Confucius. He believed that man was essentially good, not bad. If people could be taught to live and think wisely, then the evils of life would disappear and there would be a peaceful, happy society. He urged reverence for one's elders and ancestors. A rule for daily life was "Do not do to others what you would not have others do to you." His followers added religious ideas to his teachings, and in time developed out of them the religion of Confucianism. This religion stressed tradition, and helped to establish a Chinese trait of being opposed to change and progress. It also influenced Chinese thought and customs, leading to the worthy traits of good manners, love of tradition, respect for others, and obedience to parents.

But ruling families were overthrown, and China experienced long periods of bitter wars as well as invasions from the north and west. Then in the third century B.C. there arose a highly important emperor by the name of Ch'in — in fact the country came to be called by his name. He broke the power of the land-owning nobles and had the provinces of his empire governed by appointed royal officials: this form of government continued with little change right down to 1911, when a Chinese Republic replaced the empire. Also, to give protection against invasion, Ch'in had the Great

Wall erected along the country's northern frontier. It stretched across valleys and over hills for 1500 miles and in most places was 25 feet high and fifteen feet thick — still a wonderful sight today.

During the period between 200 B.C. and 200 A.D. China became a mighty empire. Then there developed an impressive civilization that spread also to Japan and part of southeast Asia. China borrowed ideas from other countries, including India's Buddhist religion. Great advances were made in scholarship, literature and art. Also remarkable was the development of beautiful pottery and porcelain, silk-weaving, paper, printing and gunpowder. At the same time China began to trade widely. Chinese goods, 'china', jade and silks, even reached the Roman empire in far away Europe. But this brings us to the next stage in the story of civilizations — to their rise in Europe, in western lands that would some day reach out, with new power, wealth and learning, back to these eastern regions where civilization had first begun.

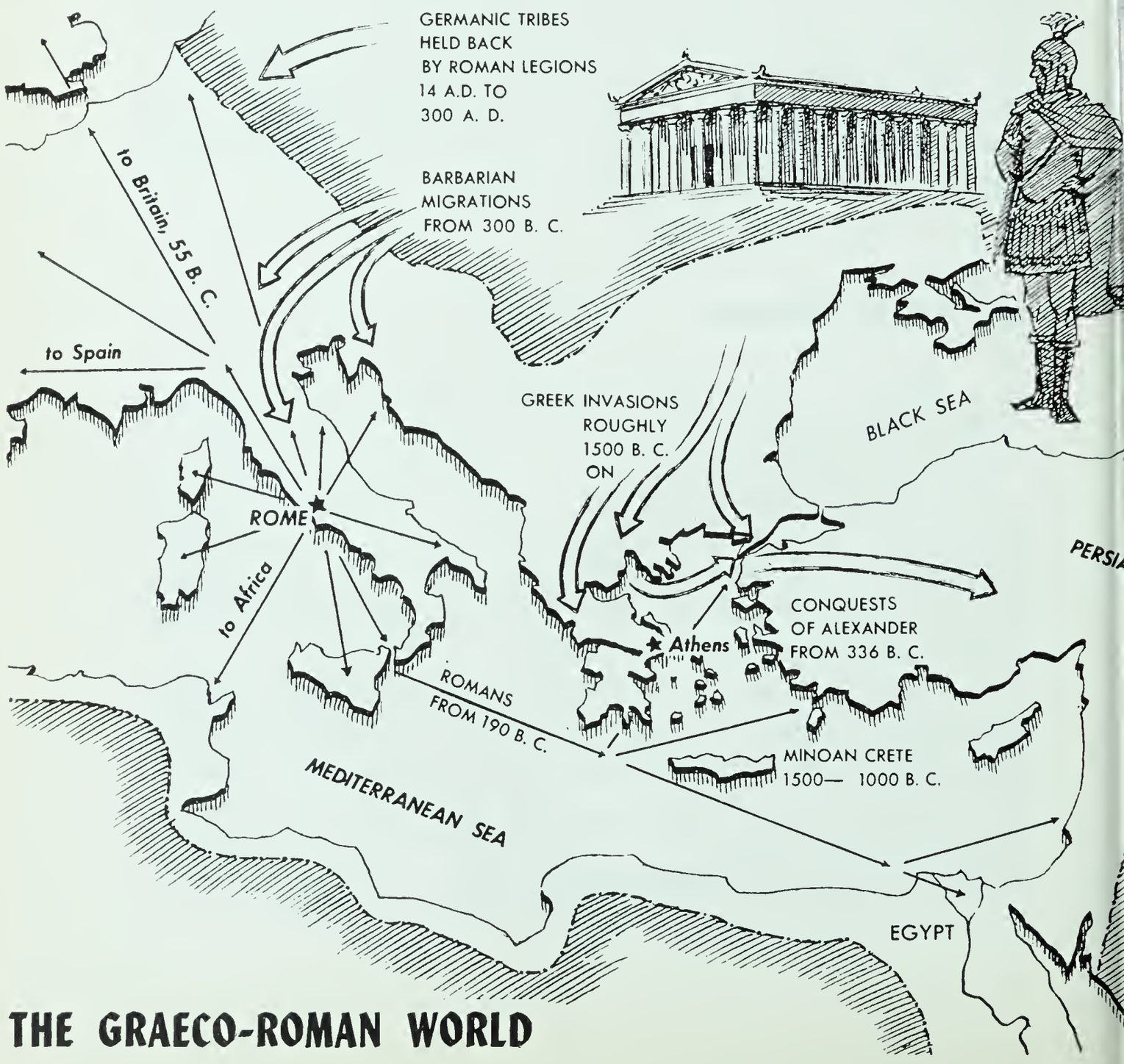
3. The Rise of Europe

(a) Greece and Rome. Far to the west meanwhile, in the European lands bordering on the Mediterranean, the restless waters of that sea had gradually brought men to develop better boats, boats that could ride the open waves and not just cling to rivers or the coasts. Gradually the sea ceased to be a barrier for these people, and became instead a broader highway for travel and transportation than the land. And this made trade easier, and led to a great new growth.

In the Aegean Sea, in the cluster of islands of which Crete is the largest, a group of people built up the first civilization that centred on sea trade. These people, through travel across the waters, borrowed ideas from Egypt and the Fertile Crescent and adapted them to fit their own needs. By 1500 B.C., a splendid Cretan or 'Minoan' civilization had arisen in the Aegean islands

and along its shores. However down from the north came barbarian (uncivilized) invaders, to conquer the Aegean lands and destroy their civilization. These were the Greeks, warrior tribes of Caucasoid stock, related to the Indo-Aryans in language.

In time the Greeks gleaned ideas from the Minoans and also borrowed from other civilizations. They too became adventurous traders and sailors, and established colonies and trading posts in points as far apart as Spain and the Black Sea. Greek cities took over the rich and growing trade of the Mediterranean. Although these Greek 'city-states' (cities, with some areas of countryside at-



THE GRAECO-ROMAN WORLD

tached) never united into one country, they had close ties with one another in language and religious beliefs. They all worshipped the gods of Mount Olympus, whose deeds are described in many a colourful Greek myth, as in the famed epic poems of Homer.

Between 500 and 350 B.C. Athens, the leading Greek city-state, carried on the world's first great experiment in democratic government. Democracy was born in Greece. Freedom fired the brilliant imaginations of the Greeks, and their achievements have inspired western man since that time. They produced superb works of art, literature, sculpture and architecture. They did pioneer work in science and medicine. And their greatest gift to mankind was in developing the careful and logical use of human reason through the work of thinkers, like Plato and Aristotle. As Socrates, another great Greek philosopher, said so well, "The object of our discussion is not that my words may triumph over yours, not that yours may gain the victory over mine, but that between us, we may discover the most perfect truth."

After 336 B.C. the Greek city-states fell into the hands of Alexander the Great of Macedon — a border area of Greece — and from here he went on to conquer the mighty power of Persia and to build an empire reaching all the way from Egypt to India. Fortunately Alexander was an admirer of Greek culture. He strove to spread Greek ideas throughout his vast domain, and they gained wide influence in many countries. Later, however, this empire split into warring sections, which threatened to destroy the wonderful civilization built by Greece. This great loss to mankind was prevented by the rise of a new western power, Rome.

Long before, wandering Caucasoid tribes had drifted into Italy, and one of these, the Latin tribe, started the town of Rome at a strategic spot for trade and defence. They became masters of the art of war, and so defeated their neighbours one by one. Then the Romans developed a kind of republican government, in which the high-placed landowners, however, and not the common people usually had control. Between 500 and 30 B.C. they conquered Italy, Greece and many areas around the Mediterranean Sea, until it

became virtually a Roman lake. Republican government broke down under the strains of this warlike expansion, as the highly disciplined Roman legions and their generals carried all before them. Out of the violent struggles that followed between leading generals, the victors made themselves dictators, and later emperors of Rome and all her vast possessions.

Roman conquests continued until the empire reached from Palestine and Persia in the east to Britain in the west. The Romans gave this whole wide world unity, law and peace. They saved and extended civilization. 'The Roman Peace' depended on a splendid system of roads and safe sea routes, on the strength of Roman legions to keep restless barbarian tribes under control, and on the justice of Roman law. Roman law, which is the basis of law in large parts of the world today, followed the principle that a person accused of a crime is innocent until proven guilty, and this marked a great advance in human rights. Peoples of many different languages and religions were treated with tolerance within the empire, and could secure the rights of Roman citizenship.

With the empire at peace there was a great growth of trade, and along with trade, ideas poured into Europe from Egypt, the Middle East, and distant India. The Romans borrowed especially from Greek thought, architecture and art, and kept much of Greek culture alive. Great authors like Virgil and Cicero produced outstanding works of literature. Roman engineers combined the arch and the dome in handsome public buildings, and built imposing bridges and aqueducts. Roman civilization thus reached a splendour, prosperity and security unknown in the world before.

Even so, the grandeur of imperial Rome failed to satisfy the wonderings in the souls of people about a life after death. Many of them turned to new religious teachings coming in from the East. None of these gave so much hope as Christianity — the religion of Jesus Christ. Jesus had lived as a humble carpenter in Palestine as Rome was rising to its peak of power, and at the age of thirty had started to preach a gospel that differed from His people's Jewish faith. He never left the little country of Palestine



and there suffered the death of a lowly criminal by crucifixion, after but three years of teaching.

Judged by worldly standards His work was a failure because His followers were few. But His message carried a stirring challenge of love and service. Slowly the gospel found its place in the souls of people in Palestine, in Greece — in Rome itself. There even the most terrible persecutions only made Christianity spread and grow stronger, since they showed how deep and sure was the faith of the Christians in their religion. Truly "the blood of the martyrs became the seed of the church".

The Christian church grew and spread through the Roman empire. In fact the official Latin language of the empire became that of the church as well. Latin, moreover, as spoken throughout the empire by soldiers and citizens gradually developed into what are called the 'Romance' languages (from 'Roman'): Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, and French. And about half of the words of the English language are also of Latin origin. Long after the fall of the empire, Latin remained the language of the scholar of Europe. This was but one more gift of Roman civilization to later ages: the Latin language, along with Roman law and learning — and even, in a way, the Christian church, which spread with the empire and endured when Roman power at last began to weaken.

(b) The 'Pulse of Asia' and the Middle Ages. During the fourth century A.D., the defences of the western part of the Roman empire collapsed under the mounting pressure of waves of barbarian attackers. Those barbarians were largely 'Germans', that is Caucasoid tribes that spoke Germanic types of language. They had been driven from their own home-lands north of the empire

by attacks of restless Mongoloid herding peoples, who had spread out from Asia across the open plateaus and grasslands. For whenever the population became too great for the grazing lands of central Asia to support, or prolonged drought sent these herdsmen forth in search of greener pastures, then bands of fierce fighting men might pour westward into Europe, eastward into China, or southward through the mountains to India. This beating 'pulse of Asia', pushing forth repeated human waves, thus hastened the intermingling of peoples and drove some groups to seek refuge in areas beyond the plains, where defence was easier. In particular, the savage Huns, Mongoloid horsemen, drove many a tribe in wild flight to escape destruction, and none were more feared in Europe than they.

These pressures from Asia, and the barbarian movements in Europe lasted for centuries. They surged in repeated waves against the eastern part of the Roman empire that had established its own capital at Constantinople. Here the defences held, and this Eastern Empire retained much of the civilization of Greece and Rome, and even kept great wealth and luxury at Constantinople. But western Europe was greatly changed after 400. Its unity was shattered. Barbarian German tribes like the Ostrogoths or Lombards controlled Italy, Visigoths held Spain; the Franks established themselves in France, while Angles, Saxons and Jutes moved into England. Norse or Viking seafarers founded an empire in Scandinavia and the northern seas, and later even reached out across the Atlantic to touch Greenland and the coast of North America.

Many other groups held areas throughout Europe, and broke it up into a number of kingdoms great and small. Yet although these barbarian invaders destroyed much, they were greatly impressed by the culture and civilization that they found, and some of it was saved. In time they mingled with the people whom they conquered, adopted their customs and developed their own languages. In this way were laid the foundations of the modern nations of Europe.

It took about five centuries for the barbarians thus to 'settle down' in western Europe, and about four more for western civilization to take shape anew. This long and colourful period is often known as the Middle Ages in European history, and throughout it the Christian church was most important in bringing about peace, order and renewed civilization. As the organization of the old Roman empire had fallen apart, the church had stepped into the gap. Great missionary work was carried on, barbarian invaders were converted from paganism, and cruelty and injustice were condemned. Bands of devoted Christian men became monks, living together in monasteries to work and worship. Monasteries were built in pagan areas, and through their example as well as through preaching and teaching, Christian beliefs and ideals were spread through the barbarian kingdoms.

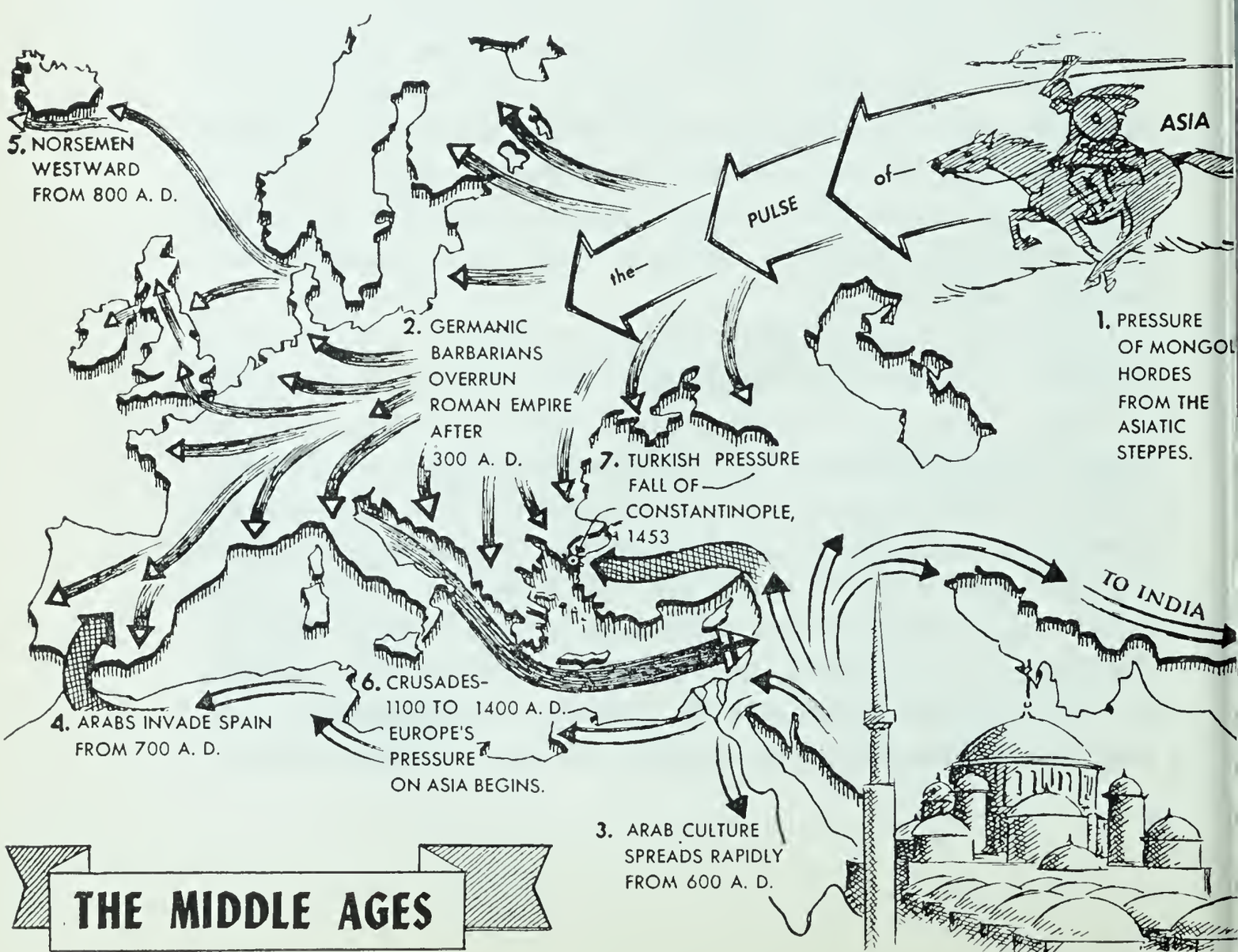
As the church took over new responsibilities, it gave increasingly more leadership in all affairs. The Pope of Rome gradually became the recognized head of the church in western Europe. The church was a strong force that continued to unite Europe as the Roman empire had done, despite the continent's division into separate countries with many languages and cultural differences. In these countries, land-holding and local government came under the control of armed knights and great lords through the 'feudal system', which lasted for centuries; but even on this system the church had great influence.

Meanwhile, a new powerful force had appeared in Asia, which also affected the development of civilization. The warlike horsemen of Arabia swept out from their desert lands to build one of the largest empires in history. The Arabs had been kept in constant turmoil by drought, pasture shortage and scarcity of food. They eagerly accepted the teachings of the Arab prophet Mohammed who, during the early 600's, founded the new Moslem religion — also called 'Islam', which means 'submission to God's will'. Through the *Koran*, or sacred book, strict rules were laid down for Moslem daily life. "There is only one God, Allah, and Mohammed is his prophet." All Moslems were equal in the eyes of Allah. All were

urged to spread the faith, and those who died in a holy war were assured of paradise.

Fired by such teachings, the Arabs poured out of the wilderness to seize the good lands of their neighbours. Syria and Palestine were conquered; Persia also fell. By 650 the Arabs had captured Egypt; from there they flowed across North Africa. The Straits of Gibraltar failed to halt them for long, and Spain fell. The Moslem armies crossed the Pyrenees into France but were stopped in the battle of Tours by the Franks and so turned back from the rest of western Europe. In the east Moslem advances continued into India and into the Turkish lands of central Asia. Thus a mighty empire was built from Spain through North Africa to India, with one main language and one ruling religion. And its wealth and civilization so increased that soon it led the world.

Within a short time this Moslem Arab empire established trade



routes to Constantinople, to India, China, and down the coasts of Africa to Madagascar. From all civilized parts of the world, including India and China, Moslem traders learned ideas and arts. Mathematical knowledge came in from India, particularly the so-called Arabic numerals, including the zero. The Arabs kept alive and added to Greek science and philosophy. They began algebra and made important discoveries in chemistry, medicine and surgery. Trade flowed from the Arab world across the Mediterranean to Europe, and in time European lands too were greatly enriched by Moslem civilization.

During the eleventh century a group of nomad peoples in central Asia known as the Turks adopted the beliefs of Islam. The 'pulse of Asia' beat again, and sent these people out as fiery religious fanatics to conquer lands westward as far as Constantinople. In fact, Turkish pressure on the western world finally brought Europe to make its first great push back towards the East, when, after 1095, the force of Christian zeal united many western lands in the 'Crusades', a joint effort of Christian armies to free the Holy Land of Palestine from the Moslem Turks. The Crusades had some success, but in time a new group of Turks advanced — the Ottomans. In 1453 they even took Constantinople, for so long the great guardian fortress at the southeastern end of Christian Europe. The Ottoman Turks then pressed on through the Balkan region of Europe. It was a long time before their expansion was halted by Christian forces here, and a strong Turkish empire long remained in the Balkans and in Asia Minor — which we know as Turkey today.

Moreover, from central Asia also, during the thirteenth century, the beating pulse sent hordes of wild Mongoloid horsemen, the Mongols or Tartars, out in several directions: eastward to conquer China and establish a Mongol Empire there; southwestward to drive the Turks on; and westward across the open plains of Russia into central Europe. Their fast-won empires did not last, but for two centuries these people dominated the land that later developed into Russia. There they adopted the Christian religion

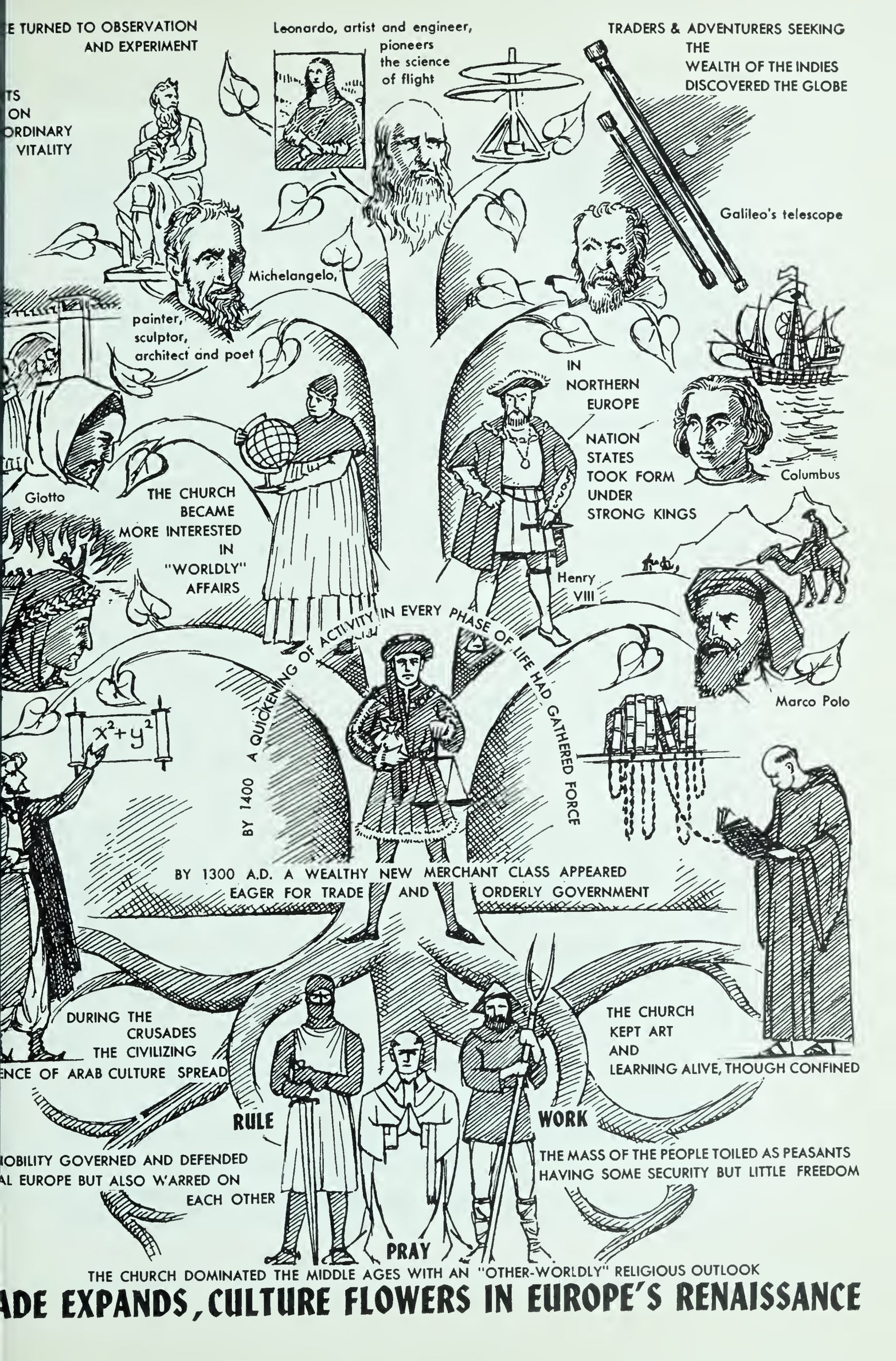
and the Russian language. From their mixing with the Caucasoid Slavic peoples of Russia, and also from the strong influence of nearby Christian Constantinople (which gave Russia its Eastern 'Orthodox' kind of Christian religion) the modern Russian nation was born.

Hence for many centuries the pulse of Asia had pushed peoples into Europe, and helped to shape its character and civilization. As the population of Europe increased, however, and the people became better organized in strong countries, determined efforts were made to turn Asiatic invaders back to their wilderness pasture lands. At last Europe ceased to be overrun. It rose in security, wealth and strength, building both on its own past civilization and on the things learned from the eastern civilizations that had become so much more rich and powerful. But now times were changing. The West was ready to expand and push against the East. And so, between 1400 and 1500 A.D., a whole new age began as the fresh and vigorous civilization of Europe began to spread out around the world.

4. European Civilization Spreads about the World

(a) The Renaissance and the Age of Discovery. During the Middle Ages, when the Christian church had filled the gap left in Europe by the fall of the Roman empire, much stress had been laid on people preparing themselves in this world for the next life in heaven. Practically all education, art and literature served the church, and its authority was very great. Land was controlled through the feudal system, and here too everything was ruled from the top. The common man had very limited rights and had to obey the lord who owned the lands. Group activities were very important, but little attention was paid to the individual and his rights and freedoms. New ideas and new ways of doing things did not develop very rapidly.

But despite the controls of authority new ideas did spread. The



ADE EXPANDS, CULTURE FLOWERS IN EUROPE'S RENAISSANCE

growing exchange of ideas was probably hastened by the Crusades that brought many men in contact with more highly developed eastern lands. And then, from about 1400 to 1600, sweeping changes began to occur in Europe, while eastern lands ceased to advance.

Europeans discovered anew the beauties as well as the difficulties in the world around them. They regarded life with new interest, and were less inclined to see it simply as a preparation for the next world. Literature, arts and science were eagerly studied, and many new inventions were made, especially in printing. Great advances took place in painting, in sculpture, in architecture, music and drama. Cities and towns grew, as trade and manufacturing drew near in importance to agriculture, and the land-holding feudal system declined. The cities became rich and powerful as did the trading 'middle class' who lived there. This whole time of great and rapid change is known as the Renaissance.

The men of Europe began to have new faith in their own powers as individuals. They were eager to explore the secrets of nature — to improve things around them. They demanded freedom to express themselves in writing, the arts, and, to a certain extent, in government. In these pursuits the rising middle class took the lead.

Belief in the individual's power, and the rapidly changing way of life, developed a tremendous urge to learn more of the unknown world. And the new middle class, eager always for more wealth and knowledge, financed long voyages of trade and discovery from many a European seaport town. Thus amazing trips of exploration were undertaken, as daring sailors drove their tiny sailing ships across the seas of the world. Columbus discovered America in 1492; Vasco da Gama sailed around Africa to reach India by sea in 1498. The oceans opened up to Europe, and its trade ceased to be centred on the Mediterranean region.

From 1500 onward a tremendous outpouring of European energies occurred, as the new age of discovery carried men from many countries overseas. The ships of Magellan voyaged around the

world in 1519-21. Missionary work was extended to the newly-discovered Americas and later to other parts of the world; indeed, as early as the 1540's St. Francis Xavier carried Christianity to India and Japan.

Colonies were founded in the almost empty Americas, for although quite well advanced American Indian civilizations had already emerged there — the Incas in Peru, the Aztec and Mayan in Mexico — they were not widely spread, and they were quickly overthrown by the white man's weapons. Thus settlers crossed the seas to find bright new opportunities in the New World, and with them went European ways of life. Colonies were later started as well in Australia, New Zealand and South Africa. In this way the European world really grew in size and it is this world that we think of today as 'the West', meaning Europe and the lands overseas settled by Europeans.

Powerful groups of traders from Spain, Portugal, Holland, France and England also sent ships to the rich and fabled East, and there established trading stations. In time these grew into actual empires, as eastern kingdoms collapsed from their own internal wars and problems, and the Europeans showed superior energy, organizing ability and military skill. Thus gradually European countries came to dominate large parts of Asia. Wars over empires were fought between these European countries in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. By about 1815, when they ended, Britain had gained control of India while the Dutch retained their hold on the East Indies. The Spanish, French and Portuguese also still held valuable posts and possessions in the eastern seas as well as in the Americas. And so the age-old pressure from Asia on Europe was replaced by the spread of European ideas, customs and rule to many other parts of the world.[1]

(b) Industrialism and Empire-Building. The beginning of the industrial revolution in the late eighteenth century hastened still more the spread of European civilization. During the nine-

[1] For more detailed treatment of this expansion, see *Canada and the Commonwealth,* **Units Eight and Nine,** and *Canada and the Americas,* Unit Two.

teenth century, the amazing work of scientists and inventors produced new machines and new knowledge that gave Europe more power and wealth than the world had ever seen before. Men put steam and later electricity to work, while all kinds of minerals were wrested from the earth. Railways and steamships greatly increased the flow of world trade; factory machinery turned out mounting piles of products that were sold or exchanged for goods all around the globe.

Trade, wealth and human comfort soared. Science controlled dreaded diseases more effectively, and much was learned about good health. Under such conditions the population of Europe increased greatly during this wonderful century. Hence Europeans came to regard their countries as being over-populated. Leaders encouraged migration across the Atlantic to the New World to relieve crowding in the Old. A great new flow of settlers to the Americas started at the close of the Napoleonic Wars (1815), and continued unchecked until the outbreak of the First World War in 1914. Europeans also went to South Africa, Australia and New Zealand. In this greatest migration, millions of people strengthened European ideals and culture wherever they started their life anew.

As the industrial revolution spread from Britain, where it began, to other European countries, they too joined in the search for ever wider markets and ever more raw materials to satisfy the hungry demands of rising machine production. By 1914, a few great western nations controlled 80 per cent of the earth's surface and resources. Western or European civilization suddenly descended on many Asian and African peoples who had lived a simple life depending on primitive agriculture. The change was tremendous, and the eastern lands could hardly hope to resist it, thanks to Europe's great lead in power and in industrial might.[2]

Mines and even some factories were developed in backward lands; plantations were started to supply western needs; roads and railways were built to overcome barriers of distance and isolation.

[2] More detailed material on the Industrial Revolution can be found in Unit Six of *Canada and the Commonwealth,* and Unit Five of *Canada and the Americas.*



EXPLORERS OPEN THE WORLD FOR EUROPE BY SEA AND BY LAND

ARCO POLO	1271-95	PIZARRO	1530-1	RALEIGH	1584	BRUCE	1768	CLAPPERTON	1823-4
OLUMBUS	1492-1504	CARTIER	1534-5	HUDSON	1610-11	COOK	1769-70	STURT	1829-30
A GAMA	1497-8	AYOLAS	1535-6	TASMAN	1642-3	MACKENZIE	1789-93	LIVINGSTONE	1849-73
BOT	1498	CORONADO	1540	LA SALLE	1681	VANCOUVER	1792-4	STUART	1860-2
AGELLAN	1519-22	ORELLANA	1540-1	LA VERENDRYE	1731-8	MUNGO PARK	1795-1805	STANLEY	1874-7
ORTEZ	1519-24	DRAKE	1578-80	BERING	1741	LEWIS & CLARK	1804-5		

Native rulers too, were often compelled to accept the authority of Europeans, because of their military strength and their efficiency in managing the country. In many regions conquered Negro or Asian peoples benefitted considerably from the ending of internal war and disorders, and from the introduction of modern hygiene and medicine. But in most cases they lost control of their lands and resources and received little of the riches which were being developed by their European masters.

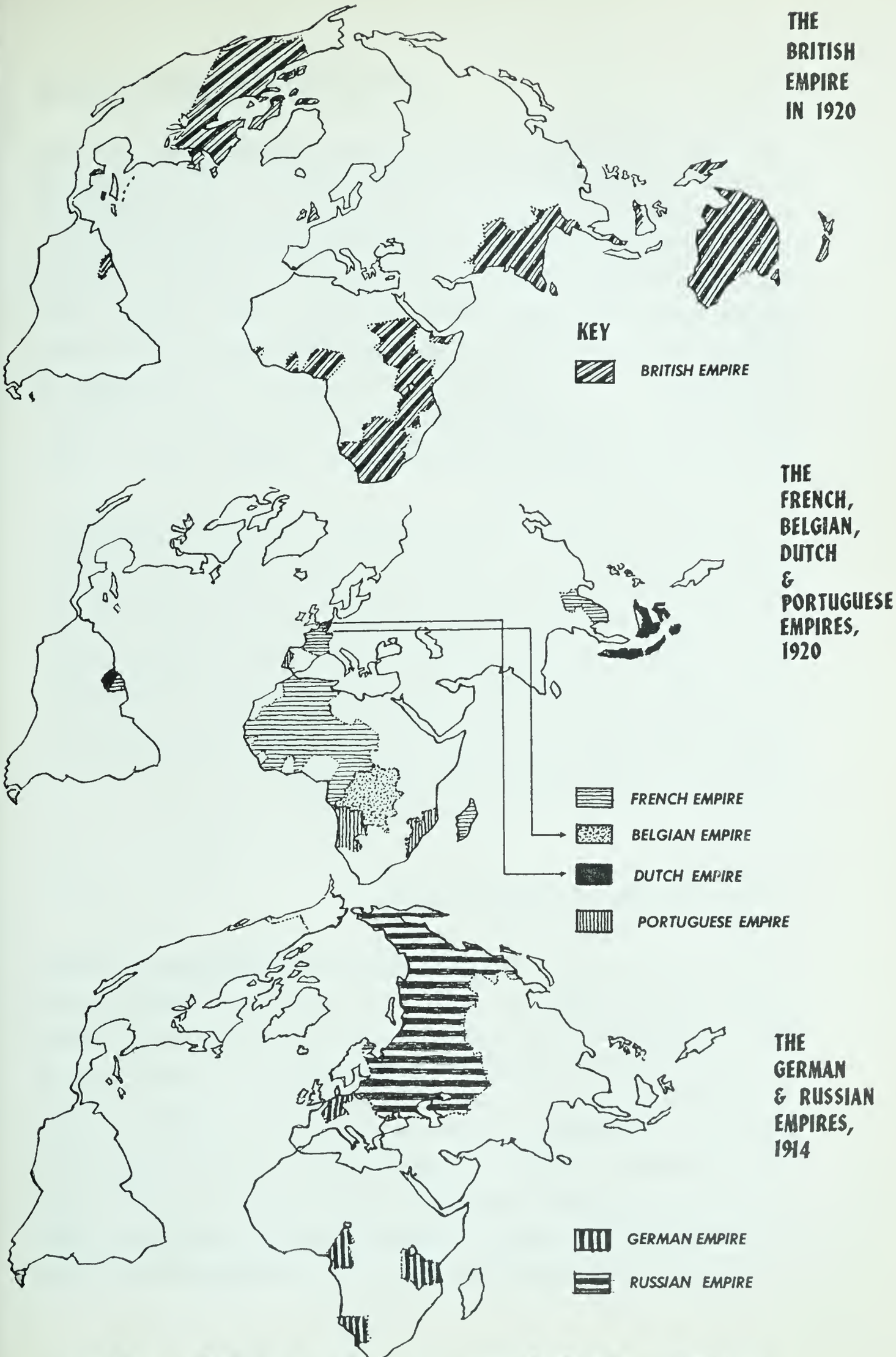
In the nineteenth century, the greatest hunt for new colonies took place in Africa. European missionaries and explorers were generally followed by traders. Then came military expeditions which claimed vast areas for their respective countries. No longer did thick jungles, tropical diseases and deadly tropical insects keep these lands in isolation. In less than half a century France had built an empire in North Africa larger than Canada, although much of it was desert. Great Britain, similarly, had gained possessions of more than three million square miles in Africa containing valuable resources, Germany controlled land of about a million square miles, Belgium and Portugal had empires many

times their own areas, while Italy had smaller possessions, though of little value.

The western world also looked upon the populous Asian lands as excellent areas for trade. The great profits that Britain had secured from trade with India and that the Dutch had gained from the East Indies aroused the desires of other European nations, and they began to act. Long before, the Chinese emperors had thrown a barrier around the Chinese people to keep out despised foreigners. All trade and contact with them was forbidden, except at two ports. But Britain used force to blast open Chinese trade during the 1840's and Hong Kong became a British possession. Other European countries soon followed this example; thus China was opened up to the West. In the wars that followed, France seized Indo-China, Russia took the Amur valley, and China's rulers were compelled to give western powers, including the United States, wide privileges in the country. By 1900, though China was not a European possession, it was far from independent.

Japan also had followed a policy of isolation for centuries. Then in the 1850's United States warships compelled the Japanese to admit American traders. Japanese leaders, however, determined to copy the West, and to gain its kind of power. Sweeping changes were therefore made in government and in land holding. Western methods of manufacturing were introduced, while the Japanese army and navy were remodelled along western lines. And soon Japan itself followed the western example by seizing territory from neighbouring China. By the beginning of the twentieth century, Japan, having adopted western ways of government and industry, had become a powerful nation, well respected by the rest of the world.

European influences were also extended into the heart of Asia by Russia. During the sixteenth century the small Russian kingdom of Muscovy, with its capital at Moscow, threw off the Mongol or Tartar rule. The rulers of Muscovy then began a policy of expansion both westward and eastward, and as a result established the great state of Russia. Stiff opposition limited their conquests



GLOBAL EXPANSION OF EUROPEAN EMPIRES

in Europe, but the east held unlimited opportunities. Russian Cossacks or frontiersmen pushed across the Ural Mountains, and by the close of the seventeenth century had reached the Pacific coast. Throughout the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries colonists from European Russia poured steadily into Siberia, the vast region beyond the Urals; Russian influence also reached southward to the frontiers of India, and Russian troops seized new areas of land from China. This eastward expansion at length came to an end when Japan defeated Russia's forces in a war of 1904-1905, but out of it emerged the world's largest country, which we now know as the Soviet Union.

By the end of the nineteenth century, therefore, European influence had encircled the globe. But one of the most important developments that accompanied the growth of western civilization — the rise of nationalism — we have not yet examined. Yet the fact is, that just as our present-day world has been largely shaped by the spread of European civilization, so it has been shaped by the growth of the spirit of nationalism and the rise of modern nations. They grew as Europe grew, and today are still of great significance in the life of the whole world.

5. The Growth of Modern Nations

(a) The Rise of Nationalism. In these pages we have made use of the terms 'state' and 'nation', and it will be helpful to say more exactly what is meant by each. A state is an area of land in which the people are ruled by some form of government whether free or not free, whether by king, emperor, president, or parliament. A state however, only becomes a nation when its inhabitants have common traditions and customs, and a strong feeling of pride arising from loyalty to the country's leaders and its ideals. The people then have a spirit of 'nationalism' — that is, they feel they belong to a group that is different from other

groups of people, and they are proud of that fact. They are loyal to their own country's ideals, and they are willing, or even eager, to serve their nation.

The powerful force of nationalism can have great influence for both good and evil. It has brought about the unification and better organization of many lands, thus gaining law and order and improved government for their peoples. Ardent love of country has inspired great achievements in the arts and sciences. It has led to deeds of great heroism and self-sacrifice, and to lives of outstanding service spent in attempts to improve the lot of less fortunate fellow-citizens. Hence nationalism can work for peace and order, learning, progress and humanity.

On the other hand, a strong spirit of nationalism has also led to war, and to the conquest of weaker states or more backward regions of the world by powerful nations. All sorts of deeds have been committed in the name of national 'pride' or 'honour' by one country against another. Extreme nationalism has often brought dislike and distrust between nations, where one regards another as a 'national enemy'. During the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, in fact, extreme nationalism was even worked up deliberately by leaders who sought to make war, as we shall see in later units. And today feelings of nationalism often block the efforts of the United Nations to bring about better understanding among the peoples of the world.

At any rate, whether for good or bad, nationalism is largely a product of European civilization. Earlier civilizations had known great empires and kingdoms, but these had usually been too loosely united and too mixed in their populations and customs for any strong common or national feeling to develop. True, Greek city-states, and other cities, often developed a warm loyalty or patriotism among their citizens. But these communities were far too small to count as nations. Hence it was only as Europe rose that quite large, but well united, states emerged as nations; that is, with a strong spirit of patriotism, common laws, ideals and customs, and usually — but not always — a common language.

Then as European civilization expanded, it spread nationalism with it: in the first place, to European colonies in the Americas and elsewhere, that developed their own common feelings and so sought to govern themselves as nations; and later, to Asiatic and African lands that had never really known a national spirit before. Today that spirit is one of the strongest forces moving in the 'awakening East', where peoples feel a new sense of their worth, and will no longer be Europe's colonies. Unfortunately, however, bad sides of nationalism – suspicion of outsiders and a touchy kind of pride – are appearing there as well. In any case the spread of nationalism has gone full circle, and may now react against Europe, where it began.

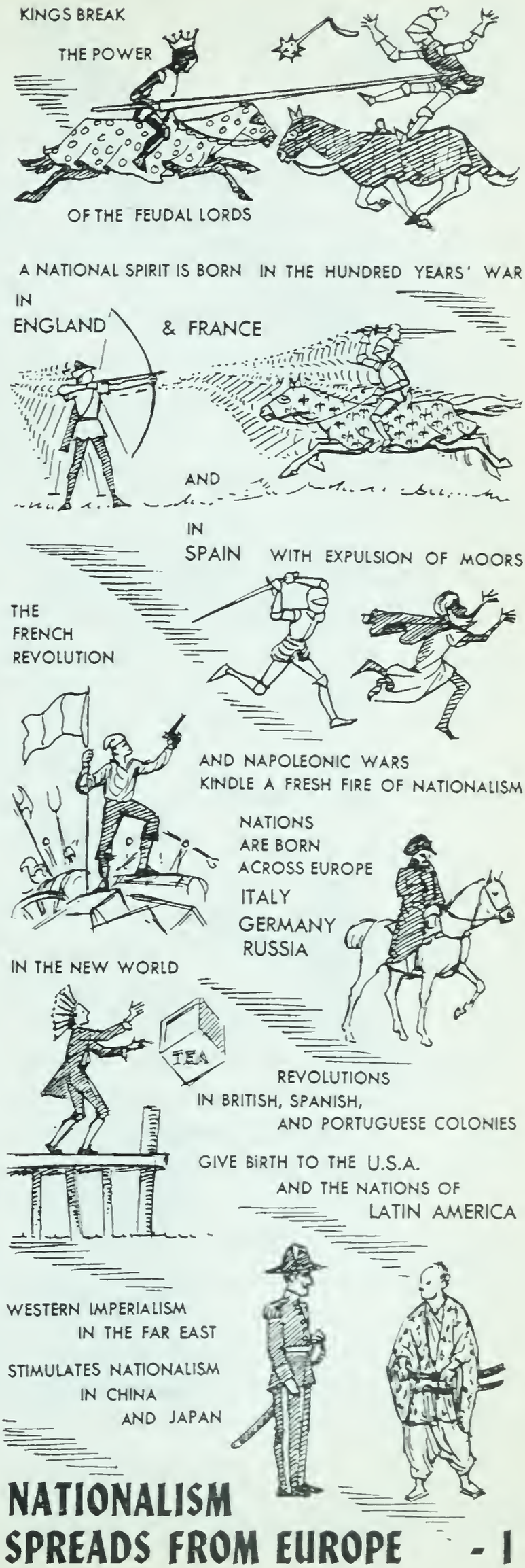
Nationalism really started in Europe during the Middle Ages. In this era there were no strong governments at first, and the kings who ruled the states that emerged from the break-up of the Roman empire had but limited power. In theory they controlled feudal lords who held great estates throughout the countryside, but very often these lords were strong enough to go their own way, even making war as they saw fit. In time, however, as towns grew up, the increasingly powerful middle class looked to the king to keep law and order and protect its trade. And so with its support, from about 1300 on the kings slowly overcame the power of the feudal nobles, established country-wide systems of law, and organized efficient national governments.

Under able kings, England made an early advance toward a united nation, as we have already seen in *Canada and the Commonwealth*. At the same time there developed the common law and the jury system: a strong English sense of justice was established. Nobles and people even rose against the cruel rule of King John and compelled him to sign Magna Carta. From this time on English rulers were not allowed to forget that they were servants of the nation and subject to the established laws. Moreover, the people gradually gained a voice in governing themselves, with the establishment of Parliament; and through Parliament the principles of free, popular government slowly developed. By the 1500's when

the capable Tudor monarchs ruled England, the land was united, with a common language and a strong sense of loyalty to king and country. England had become a modern nation with proud national traditions of freedom and parliamentary rule. Then in 1707, through the union of their parliaments, Scotland and England combined to form the United Kingdom of Great Britain.

France, like England, was first united by her kings. Gradually nobles were brought under royal control; more efficient methods of government and of justice were established. But pride in country remained weak until late in the long and terrible Hundred Years' War, when English rulers sought to conquer French lands. Then the heroic leadership of Joan of Arc in the struggle aroused a flame of national pride, and a determination to free France. The war ended in 1453 with France liberated from foreign power, and soon to become a nation under a strong royal government.

In Spain nationalism was shaped in long wars to drive out the ruling Moslems. By the 1490's this effort had succeeded, and the country was united as a proud and ex-



NATIONALISM SPREADS FROM EUROPE - 1

panding nation. Portugal too was established as a national state under a strong monarchy. To a large extent it was bold and warlike nationalism that was responsible for the early establishment of huge Spanish and Portuguese empires in the Americas.

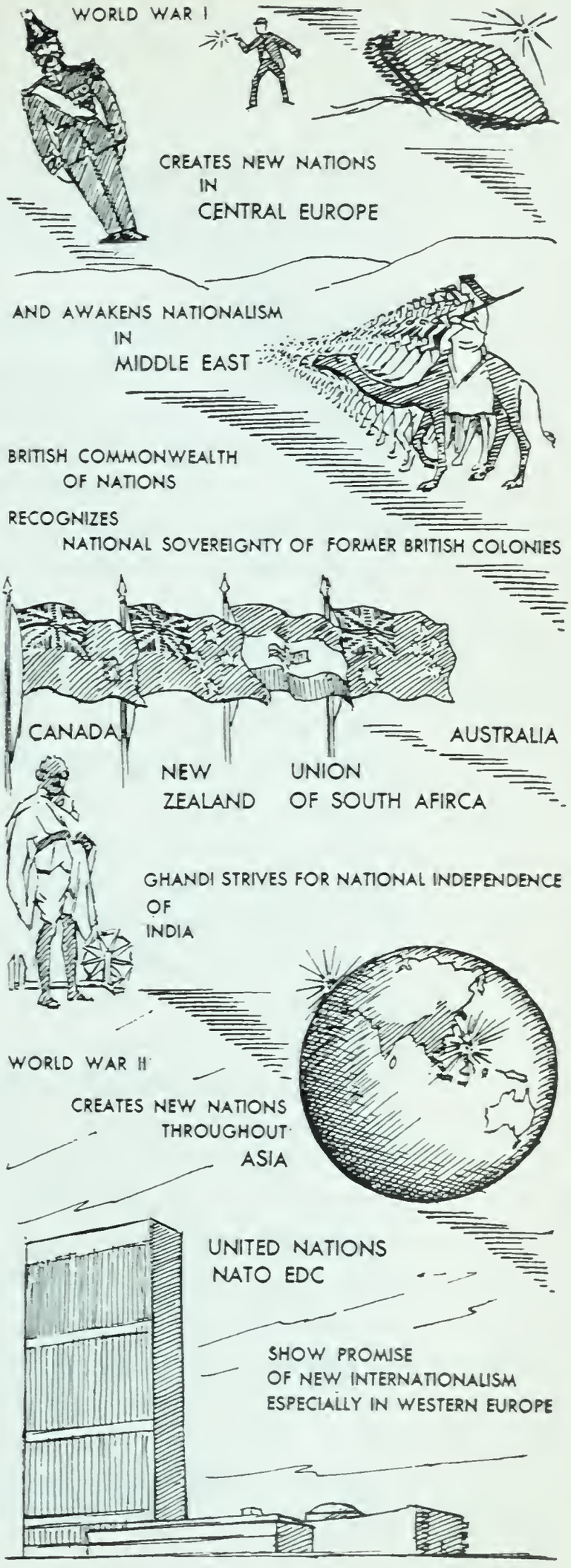
Most of the other countries of Europe continued for many years longer as disunited states, because of the dividing forces of their geography. In addition they contained many different language groups, resulting from the various barbarian invasions of earlier days, and the patchwork divisions of the feudal system often remained. And so when England and France had become nations, Germany and Italy, for example, had notably failed to do so. In each of them the presence of a vast number of petty states made closer union impossible until some great force could overcome the various local patriotisms. At last, after 1800 that force appeared: a blaze of nationalism was kindled on the continent of Europe by the shock of the French Revolution and the conquests of Napoleon.

The French Revolution produced new ideals for mankind of 'liberty, equality, and fraternity', and conquering French armies spread these democratic principles far across Europe. However, the struggle against Napoleon, the great French soldier and emperor, also roused strong national feelings among other European peoples. Freedom and nationalism became closely allied in their minds. The final defeat of Napoleon in 1815 left a deeply stirred Europe. As a result, after the middle of the nineteenth century Italy and Germany became united and strongly nationalistic. In Russia the emperors or czars began to 'Russify' their vast empire, and nationalism arose in Poland and other eastern European lands. In 'mixed' states like Russia or Austria, indeed, that contained many different national groups held down by one ruling power, great strains were created as 'subject peoples' began to demand and plot for independence, and nations of their own.

Furthermore, across the Atlantic nationalism was also stirring. Already in the 1770's a desire to govern themselves had led Britain's American colonies to fight for independence, and to set up a proud new nation in the world, the United States of America.

Nationalism, too, produced revolutions in Latin America, and after 1800 a whole series of new republics emerged from Mexico to Argentina. In Canada and other leading colonies of the British empire, the pattern was somewhat different, but the results were the same; namely, self-government and full national freedom. However, Canada and other British Dominions did not make a violent revolution to gain independence, but rather advanced gradually to nationhood: gaining a large degree of self-government in the 1850's, uniting under central governments somewhat later (Canada in 1867, Australia in 1900), and acquiring full national rights in world affairs in the twentieth century.

(b) Nations in the Twentieth-Century World. Accordingly, by the time our own century had been reached, the peoples of Europe had been gradually organized into nations, as had those of the Americas and other parts of the western world. Nationalism had even reached Asia in the case of the westernized nation of Japan. But elsewhere in Asia and Africa by 1900, it had not yet had much effect. The great majority of the earth's population still did not live



NATIONALISM SPREADS FROM EUROPE - II

within their own nations, but rather within lands owned or largely controlled by European empires. The coming century would make great changes, for better or worse, and would spread nationalism much further.

The First World War, which broke out in 1914, was caused to a large extent by the strains that nationalism had built up in Europe — the growth of distrust and rivalry between great nations, the desire of small subject groups for national freedom, and the massing of powerful national armies. And one of its results was the creation of new nations, chiefly in central and eastern Europe, out of old empires that had held peoples under — for example, Czechoslovakia and Yugoslavia.

The onset of a Second World War, which began in 1939, also had much to do with nationalism. The dictators Hitler and Mussolini in Germany and Italy and war-lord leaders in Japan misdirected national feelings into powerful warlike movements, in which the peoples of these countries were urged to fight, conquer and die in order to win glory and power for their nations. The dictators and their ruthless war machines were beaten, but again the struggle produced striking results in the rise of new nations — only this time among eastern peoples, who had changed little for many centuries.

In 1947 India and Pakistan emerged as new powers out of Britain's former Indian empire. So did Burma; while the Dutch East Indies became the independent state of Indonesia. In the Middle and Near East there were also changes. The new nation of Israel was founded. Persia developed a fiery nationalism, as did Egypt and many Arab lands. In Africa, British West Africa made great strides towards self-government, while French Morocco and Tunisia began to demand it from France.

There were other stirrings too, but unhappily, eastern desires for nationalism were very often taken advantage of by communist forces. Thus a newly aroused China was swept into the communist camp in 1949, while Indo-Chinese communists claimed to be fighting a national war for independence from France, and so

gained much support from their people. The story could go on, but it is enough to say that nationalism is still a growing force in the world, and is only now reaching the very areas where the bulk of the world's population lives.

Yet though nationalism in the twentieth century world is a great problem, it is not the only one. By now, indeed, in many western countries of the world, the people are often well beyond any violent nationalistic feelings of independence and separation, and see only too plainly the need for nations to work together, lest we all go down together in the terrible destructiveness of modern war. Thus the United Nations was created in 1945 as a step beyond the organization of the world into separate nations — as a bigger, wider organization of all the peoples of the globe, which might therefore keep the peace between them. It has achieved but a limited success, but the mere existence of the United Nations shows that many people are now thinking beyond purely national ideas.

Then too, the needs of trade, that often serve to unite quite different peoples, have brought European nations together in 'supranational' (above-national) organizations like the European Steel and Coal Community, which controls the flow of these vital products in six western European states. And there are other such examples. Europe, in fact, the continent where nationalism began, seems more and more conscious that it can no longer afford too much of it in this complex modern age.

Yet we still live in a world of nations, and world affairs are still carried on by agreement and discussion between nations — or sometimes by the actual use of force, as in war. To understand international affairs, therefore, it is necessary to know something of the balance of world power; that is, where we will find the nations with the most power in the world, since they usually play the main roles in all the biggest issues and other countries follow them.

For centuries the balance of world power lay in Europe, and it was chiefly held at the beginning of the twentieth century by Brit-

ain, France and Germany. Now all this has changed. Generally, western European countries have either declined in power or have failed to keep pace with the growth of the two young giants — the United States and the Soviet Union. In this day of air warfare, and because of the need of great resources for modern war, only huge countries like these last two can hope to count as first-ranking powers, since they have broad areas to resist attack, and much of what they need within their own borders. Britain is perhaps first of the next-ranking powers, because of her wide world connections and experience. Yet Canada is also of steadily rising importance, thanks to her own rich resources and advancing industry.



The present century has not only seen a remarkable shift in the balance of power away from Europe; it has also seen the close of a great age of migrations that carried European peoples across the seas and especially to the Americas. The 'Atlantic migration' of the nineteenth century continued on into the twentieth, and reached its peak in the years before the First World War. In fact in the whole movement after 1815 some sixty-three million people crossed from Europe to the New World. Canada alone between 1896 and 1914 had gained close to three million newcomers, while the United States then received fourteen million. After the war, the flow began again; but it was considerably limited both by restrictions set on the admission of immigrants to the United States and Canada (espe-

cially after the world depression started in 1929) and by other restrictions preventing people leaving certain European countries.

Following the Second World War, there was a new movement to the Americas, but it was smaller, and largely consisted of displaced persons, persons torn from their former homes by Germany or Communist Russia during the war and left with no chance of returning. The United States and Canada both eased their laws to let 'D.P.'s' enter. Other immigrants also came into Canada from Britain, the Netherlands and elsewhere, so that in the ten years after 1945 over a million new citizens were admitted. Nevertheless it was clear that, in general, Europe would no longer be sending a great stream of people outward; and so a movement that had done much to build up new western nations overseas was indeed coming to an end.

Moreover, as we stand in the mid-twentieth century and look back over the past, we may well feel that another age in man's history has come to a close. The long expansion of Europe is over. Its peoples are still vigorous, wealthy and progressive; its civilization still dominates the world, which it has taught so much; and overseas there are new western nations, the children of Europe, to step into the lead. One of them, the United States, is already the world's greatest power. But it is plain that it is areas and peoples outside Europe that are steadily gaining in importance, and we may well be moving into a whole new era for mankind.

What then have we learned from this long survey of the past eras in man's story? First, perhaps, that man, whatever his 'race' or origin, is much the same everywhere — that no people is made naturally the master and the other the slave; for although at one time one people may seem to control, in another day they may have fallen behind in the march of civilization, while some other group has come to the fore. And each of them has added something to the common stock of human knowledge.

Second, we see that as man has occupied and developed the globe, and built up his civilization, he has gradually organized himself into larger and larger groupings that provide government and

law and preserve order for their members. From the primitive clan or tribe to the city-state of Babylon or Greece was a great step forward. So it was from the early barbarian states of Europe to the feudal kingdoms of the Middle Ages — and an even greater one from there to the modern, highly developed nation. Third, we may say that while nations brought more law, order and progress than ever before to people within their boundaries; they failed to solve the problem of wars between themselves that have brought such great suffering to mankind. And so in this newest age, man is now groping beyond nationalism and in the direction of world government, through the United Nations. A valuable start has been made, but a great deal remains to be done, as we shall learn in later units of this book. Before we do so however, we will turn to our own Canadian nation, as we find it in this twentieth-century world, and see how it fits into the patterns of modern civilization that we have watched taking shape.

Time Chart

?	The beginnings of man
5000 B.C.	Beginnings of Chinese civilization
4000 B.C.	Indus valley Empire formed in India
4000 – 3000 B.C.	Rise of Egyptian civilization
3000 – 2500 B.C.	Sumerians establish a civilization
2000 – 1000 B.C.	Height of Phoenician city states
1600 – 1400 B.C.	Cretan or Minoan civilization important
1400 – 1000 B.C.	Beginning of Hebrew state in Palestine
550 – 330 B.C.	Persian Empire rose and fell
500 – 400 B.C.	The Great Age of Athens
334 – 100 B.C.	Greek empires of Alexander the Great and successors extend from Egypt to borders of India
200 B.C. – 400 A.D.	The Roman Empire comes to extend from Britain to Arabia, and from North Africa to the Danube
400 – 600 A.D.	Barbarians settle in Western Europe – Goths, Franks, Angles, etc.
640 – 800 A.D.	Arab Empire spreads across North Africa to Spain and east to India
1200 – 1400 A.D.	The Mongols and Tartars overrun Eastern Europe
1300 – 1600 A.D.	The Renaissance in Europe
1300 – 1453 A.D.	Turkish Empire expands and takes Constantinople
1450 – 1500 A.D.	National states arise in Western Europe
1490 – 1520 A.D.	The great age of European overseas discoveries
1500 – 1700 A.D.	Colonies organized in the New World
1800 – 1900 A.D.	Europe takes possession of Africa
1815 – 1914 A.D.	Many European settlers come to the New World

Learn by Doing

1. Read Chapter 2 of *Genesis,* the Biblical account of man's origin. (1, a)

2. Discuss the statement, "God hath made of one blood all nations of men for to dwell on the face of the earth". (1, a)

3. Have two pupils report on the significance of the Pyramids and the Sphinx. (2, a)

4. Prepare posters showing the contributions to modern civilization of the following: (2, a)
   (1) Egyptians
   (2) Sumerians
   (3) Hebrews
   (4) Persians

5. Have four pupils outline the contributions of India, China, Greece and Rome. The class decides which country is being referred to. (2, b and 3, a)

6. Discuss briefly the Hindu, Buddhist and Moslem religions of India. (2, b)

7. (a) Describe ways in which the Christian religion affected the Roman Empire.
   (b) Read Chapters 25 and 27 of *The Acts* where Paul appeals to Rome and finally goes to that city. (3, a)

8. Europe began to send explorers throughout the world after the 15th century. Have pupils mark the routes of the following on a large blackboard map and have the other pupils name the explorers: Da Gama, Magellan, Cabot, Tasman, Hudson, Bruce, Cortes, and Cartier. (4, a)

9. (a) Discuss whether strong feelings of nationalism have achieved more good or harm in the last few centuries. (5, a)
   (b) In what way is nationalism affecting Asia at the present time? (5, b)

10. Discuss whether Europe, America or Asia is likely to become most important in the next hundred years. (5, b)

Facts to Know

1. (a) Name the three main races of mankind.
   (b) State briefly the difference, in meaning, between the terms 'race' and 'nation'. (1, a)
2. (a) On map of the world, mark on the main mountain ranges, large rivers, and plains.
   (b) Explain briefly the way in which these surface features affected early migrations. (1, b)
3. On a map mark the places where the following early civilizations flourished: Egyptian, Sumerian, Phoenician, Persian, Hebrew, Indian, Chinese, Greek and Roman. (2)
4. (a) Who were the Huns?
   (b) What caused the 'hordes of Asia' to set out on conquering expeditions about the 4th century?
   (c) List four German tribes of Western Europe with the countries where they settled. (3, b)
5. (a) Who was Mohammed?
   (b) List the contributions which the early Arab world made to civilization. (3, b)
6. (a) On a map, mark the Turkish Empire of the 11th century.
   (b) Why were the Crusades carried on? (3, b)
7. (a) What is meant by the Renaissance?
   (b) What changes took place during this time? (4, a)
8. (a) Why did Europe's influence begin to expand rapidly after the 18th century?
   (b) In what ways did the establishment of European colonies in other lands: (1) help these lands; (2) hurt these lands. (4, b)
9. How would you describe Britain's treatment of China and the United States' treatment of Japan in the middle of the 19th century? (4, b)
10. (a) Outline briefly the main factors which helped form the following nations: England, France, Spain and Portugal.
    (b) What factors hindered some of the other European countries from becoming united? (5, a)

11. (a) Wars often stir up strong feelings of nationalism. List new countries which emerged after the First World War and the Second World War.

    (b) In what way has the balance of power changed since the Second World War? (5, b)

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UNIT FOUR

THE MODERN CANADIAN NATION

1. *The Moulding of a Nation*
2. *Geographic and Economic Influences on Canada*
3. *The Canadian People*
4. *Two Canadian Ways of Life*
5. *The Patterns of Canadian Democracy*

In our own fast-moving twentieth century, we are thrilled to hear of Canada's growing contributions to world wealth and welfare, to scientific and industrial progress, to the arts and learning, and to all the many other sides of modern civilization. With pride we follow the efforts of our leaders to bring about better understanding between widely different peoples through the United Nations, international conferences, or world-wide good-will tours. We can indeed find many signs of Canada's importance in the world today. But first, so that we will be able to understand our country's role in world affairs, we should consider how Canada has developed as a nation, and see how her outlook on the world has been greatly shaped thereby.



Courtesy Toronto Daily Star

PRIME MINISTER ST. LAURENT IS GREETED IN PAKISTAN ON HIS WORLD TOUR OF 1954.

1. The Moulding of a Nation

The core of a nation is its people—and here we should recognize that Canada is basically a child of Europe, a product of that world-wide spreading of European civilization described in the last unit. For while a handful of native Indian and Eskimo peoples continues to live in Canada, plainly our modern nation began with the movement of French and British settlers across the North Atlantic ocean to North America from 1600 on. Thereafter Canada grew with repeated waves of immigrants from Britain and other European lands. At first, however, the European settlement in Canada was mainly French. Although some few English did establish themselves in Newfoundland or in what is now Nova Scotia, or even at Hudson's Bay Company posts on the great Bay, the story of Canada down to 1760 was largely that of the French colony on the banks of the St. Lawrence, the sturdy settlement of New France, whose descendants today still dwell in our province of Quebec.

But in 1760 New France fell, in the course of the long struggle between Britain and France for overseas empire. Canada passed

into British hands, though it largely remained a French-speaking country until after the American Revolution. Strikingly enough, this was an event of great importance to Canada, for its people decided not to join the thirteen American colonies in revolting from Britain. Ever since the Revolution, in fact, Canadians have followed their own step-by-step progress to nationhood, without the violence of the revolutionary course taken by the United States, and they have seen advantages in retaining membership in the world-wide Commonwealth of Nations that grew up out of the old British Empire. Furthermore, out of the American Revolution came the movement into Canada of Loyalists fleeing from the new United States. With their influx in the 1780's, vigorous English-speaking colonies began to rise, both in the Maritimes and in the area that developed into the province of Ontario. Immigration from Britain in the first half of the nineteenth century greatly added to the growth of these settlements.

The young colonies were soon tested during the War of 1812, when they successfully resisted American invasion and conquest. French and English alike showed their determination not to be brought into the United States, and from this grew a main characteristic of the modern Canadian nation: a desire to make her own way in the world and in North America — as a partner but not as a part of the great neighbouring American republic.

As population increased, people in Britain's North American colonies began to demand more rights of self-government. When these were not granted, eager reformers like Mackenzie and Papineau stirred up rebellion in Upper and Lower Canada — as Ontario and Quebec then were called — in an attempt to win freedom by force. Only a small minority favoured such extreme action, and the rebellions of 1837 were easily put down. Britain sent Lord Durham to investigate. Durham then wrote his famous Report in which he urged that colonies should be given greater freedom and self-government to bind them more closely to the Empire. In line with his proposals, Robert Baldwin and Joseph Howe sought to

gain the British cabinet system of government (i.e responsible government) for the British American provinces. Thanks to their work, and that of Lafontaine and Hincks, responsible government was granted by the end of the 1840's, and the colonies could now control their own internal affairs.

A vital step on the way to Canadian nationhood had thus been taken. Moreover, another national characteristic had been fixed: namely, that Canada should follow the British parliamentary and cabinet system in governing itself, rather than the republican or congressional plan that the United States had adopted in its own march to freedom.

With keen enthusiasm, leaders in the British American provinces began to use the new power of self-government to make needed improvements in education and transportation, to promote trade and develop the country. This was especially true in the large Province of Canada that had been formed by the Act of 1840, uniting Upper and Lower Canada.

Yet the very widening of the powers of government brought new arguments in Canada over their use, and so tended to magnify the differences between French and English in the Province of Canada and to drive them apart. Furthermore, although the development of the telegraph and the railway offered ways to tie all the scattered British American colonies together, the Maritime provinces still had no real contacts with central Canada, and in all the great West there were only tiny settlements at the Red River (in what would become Manitoba) and on the Pacific shores of British Columbia. The Canadians might now be governing themselves, it is true, but they were still far from forming one nation.

Then in the 1860's the amazingly rapid expansion of the United States, as well as American demands that British rule in North America should be ended, again made many Canadians fear the mighty republic. During the American Civil War there were sharp disputes between Britain and the United States, and there seemed danger that American troops would invade Canada. A few able statesmen, the Fathers of Confederation – men like Macdonald,

Brown, Cartier, Galt, Tilley and Tupper — recognized that the time had come for the provinces to unite to form one nation. Otherwise they were in danger of being taken bit by bit into the United States. Union too, on the federal plan, might settle the differences between French and English in Canada, by leaving matters of dispute to separate provincial governments, while turning questions of common concern over to one central government.

The perils feared from the United States, and the divisions between French and English-speaking Canadians, brought home the need for bold plans to unify all Canada. Railways had to be built to link the provinces for defence, to promote their settlement and to encourage trade between them. Prompt action was needed to take over the empty prairie West and British Columbia before they fell, as Oregon had, before onrushing American settlement. Canadians caught the vision of a rising young nation extending from the Atlantic to the Pacific, and from the United States border to the Arctic Ocean. They dreamed of a country which in certain respects would be like and unlike both Britain and the United States — a nation, in short, which would be Canadian.

And so the Fathers of Confederation made plans for a federal union. Aided by support from Britain and national stirrings against the United States, they finally managed to carry their proposals in the form of an act passed by the British Parliament, the British North America Act of 1867. Four provinces, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Quebec and Ontario united on July 1 of that year to form the Dominion of Canada. Led by its brilliant first Prime Minister, Sir John A. Macdonald, the Dominion soon had secured the Red River district and the vast West from the Hudson's Bay Company, set up the new province of Manitoba, and brought British Columbia and Prince Edward Island into the Union. The enormous obstacles of distance were overcome by building the Canadian Pacific Railway to the west coast and the Intercolonial Railway to the Atlantic. The fertile prairies were surveyed and opened to settlement. By 1900, under the capable rule of Sir Wilfrid Laurier, new settlers were pouring in to fill Canada's great western

BUILDERS OF THE CANADIAN NATION

1. Self Government


Mackenzie


Durham


Papineau


Baldwin


Lafontaine


Howe

---

2. Union


Brown


Cartier


Galt


Tilley


Macdonald


Tupper

---

3. Nationhood


Laurier


Borden


King

reaches. And despite some setbacks, relations with the United States grew much closer and more friendly, so that the earlier fears passed away.

Thus Canada had become a continent-wide state; but still was not fully a nation. Her people — French, British or American in origin, and now being drawn from many European lands — had not yet developed a clearly Canadian national feeling. Britain still spoke for Canada as well as the whole empire in foreign affairs, and with her armed forces provided protection from outside dangers. Canada, therefore, might have gained unity and control of her affairs at home, but she still could not control her own affairs abroad or act as a responsible nation in the eyes of the world.

Then in 1914 came the First World War, and Canada's great efforts in this struggle earned her the right to be treated by the world as a grown nation, not a dependent colony. Moreover, the country's active part in the war greatly increased the feeling of national pride. Her Prime Minister, Sir Robert Borden, brought the British government to give Canada and the other Dominions a share in planning and directing the whole imperial war effort. When the war came to a close, Canadians claimed rights for their country as a nation. Hence Canada took part in the international peace settlement of 1919, and was admitted to the League of Nations. In the years thereafter, her national rights were rounded out so that she could control her external affairs as fully as her internal affairs, as we shall see in more detail in the next unit.

Canada's advance to full nationhood, however, did not result in cutting herself off completely from other countries. She willingly remained a member of the British Commonwealth of Nations. She also maintained particularly close relations with Britain and the United States, since she chiefly looked to these two powerful, friendly states for world security, and for much of her trade. All three, in fact, have been throughout history so closely connected around the North Atlantic 'lake', that they have been termed the North Atlantic Triangle. Canada, then, had emerged as a new nation in the world: a North American, North Atlantic

nation, with a character and outlook of her own. Yet because her geography and economic life so greatly affected Canada's whole outlook as a nation, it is to these subjects that we now must turn.

2. Geographic and Economic Influences on Canada

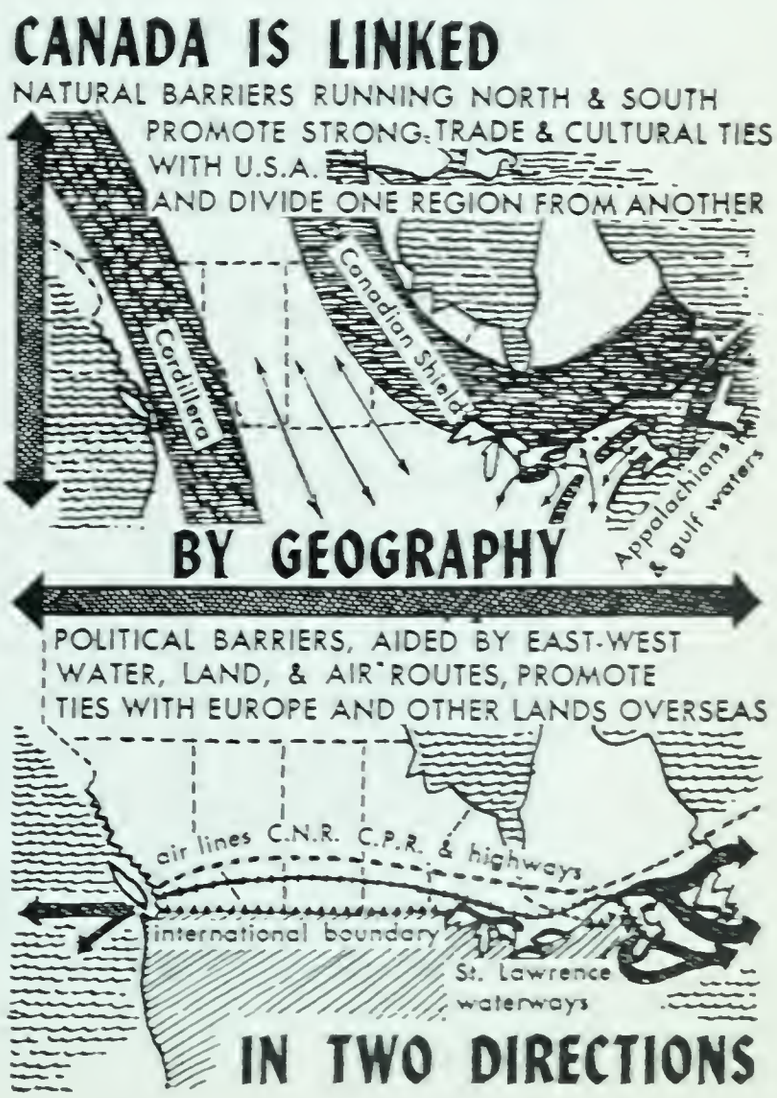
(a) Geography and the Canadian Nation. When we study Canada's geography we cannot help but be amazed by the enormous extent of the country. This is the third largest nation in the world, being exceeded in size only by Russia and China. It occupies the whole northern part of North America, with the exception of Alaska, and has an area of some 3,842,000 square miles, as compared with a total area of 3,776,700 square miles for Europe. Its most southerly part lies about in the same latitude as Rome, Italy, while its northern areas are in the region of eternal frost. With all this great size we might well expect that Canada would be supplied with many resources, and so she is. Yet her population is only a fraction of that of other giant lands, like Russia, China, or the United States, for over four-fifths of Canada is too cold or too barren for close settlement.

From a map showing the surface features of North America, it might also appear that Canada exists as a nation almost in defiance of the forces of geography. The natural lines dividing the continent into regions run from north to south, although the boundary line runs from east to west. The Appalachian Mountains in the east, the Great Central Plain, and the Cordilleran ranges of the west continue right through the United States and Canada. Moreover, the eastern, southern and western margins of Canada are closely connected with the sea routes and inland waterways of the United States, and the Ontario peninsula thrusts far into the American industrialized areas. Hence the Canadian economy and Canadian life in general are closely linked to those of the United States.

Accordingly if trade and travel were to follow the natural divisions of the continent, they might largely take a north-south direc-

tion. But the international boundary and Canadian and American policies divert much of this flow to an east-west direction. Moreover, the east-west movement of trade in Canada has been greatly aided by geography, through the broad St. Lawrence water system. From the Strait of Belle Isle off Newfoundland to the head of Lake Superior lie 2,338 miles of waterways open to large steamships, and even to ocean liners with the completion of the St. Lawrence Deep Waterway. As a result, we may find a Swedish freighter half way across Canada at the lakehead port of Fort William. West of here, in Canada's early days, long rivers like the Saskatchewan and Fraser could carry canoes onward fairly easily to the Pacific. Later railways and highways could stretch across all these routes to bind the nation together from sea to sea, and so to make possible a united Canada.

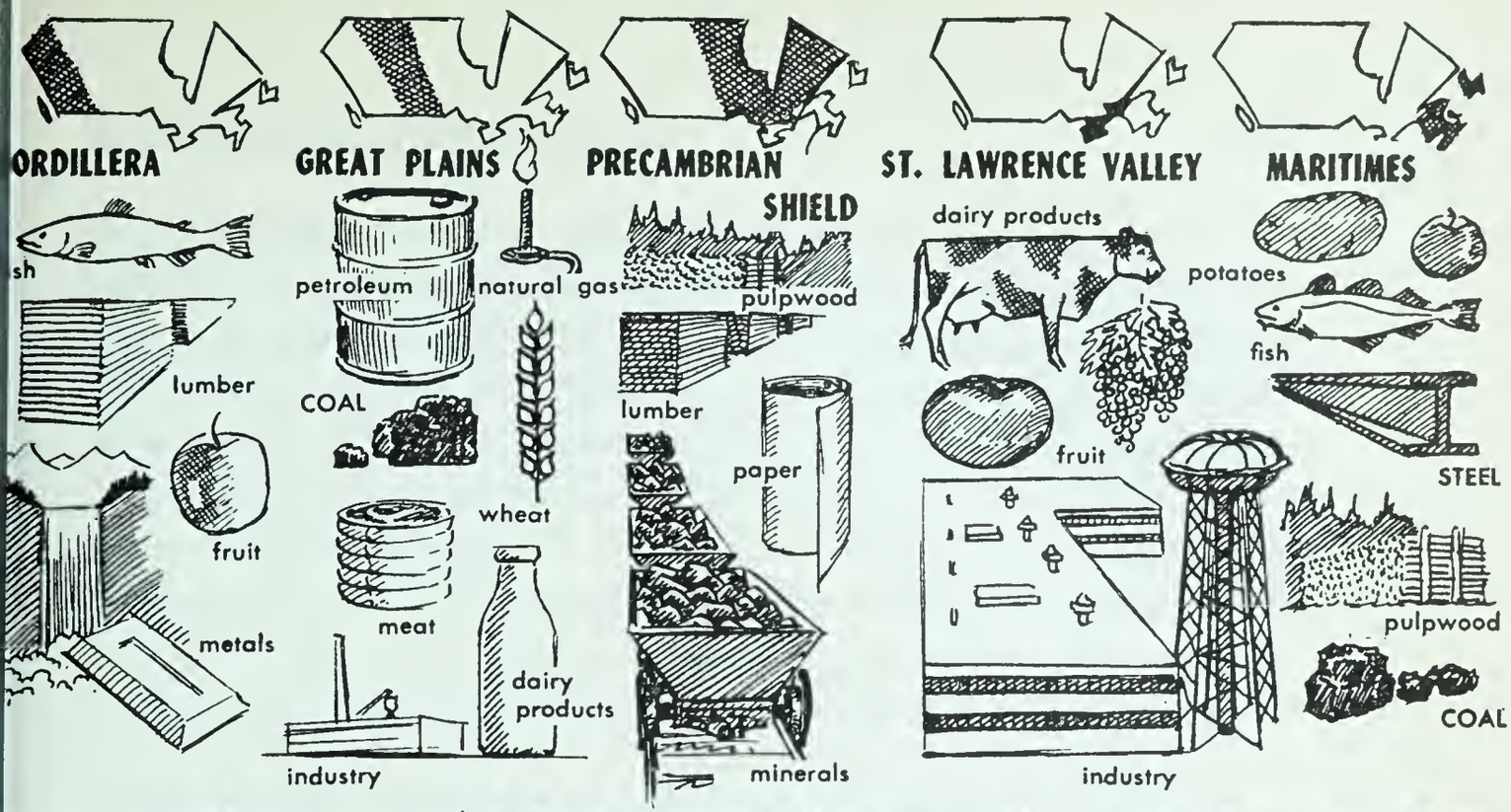
From the start, therefore, the grand St. Lawrence route attracted Europeans across the North Atlantic and on into the interior. In time daring fur traders and explorers established a trans-Canada canoeway to the western coasts. Then settlers and railway builders followed the routes of French and British fur traders to open up the land to the Pacific. The very challenges of geography aroused the Canadian people to action, and brought them to span the continent with great transportation systems. Thus, as well as powerful north-south ties with the United States, there have also been strong forces binding the nation from east to west: directing her trade out over the oceans as well as down into the United States, and linking her besides with Britain, Eu-



rope, and Commonwealth countries across the seas. In particular the open North Atlantic ocean, which lies at Canada's front door, has been significant in joining her with lands outside North America, since it has carried most of Canada's overseas trade, brought in the great bulk of her people, and still keeps her in easy touch with western European lands.

Geography nevertheless divides Canada at home into a number of great divisions or regions. In the east the Maritime Provinces are marked off from the rest of Canada by the low Appalachian Mountains. Westward from the Appalachians the St. Lawrence Valley reaches far into the heart of the continent. North of the St. Lawrence system the rugged Canadian Shield stretches in a mighty crescent from Labrador through the Northwest Territories to the Arctic Ocean. Beyond the Shield the western plains roll from Manitoba to the Rockies and reach northward to the frozen lands of the Arctic. West of the plains are the lofty Cordilleran mountain ranges that stretch right to the edge of the Pacific. North of all these regions are the sub-Arctic and Arctic lands of Canada, made up of boggy tundra lowlands around Hudson Bay, and the bleak, wind-swept rocky islands girded by the ice-bound Arctic Ocean.

(b) Canadian Regions and Canadian Trade. The Atlantic or Maritime provinces are largely composed of the rounded Appalachians, which form masses of hills and wooded uplands, with sheltered valleys between. There are also fertile lowland areas: the tidal marsh lands at the head of the Bay of Fundy, the east coast of New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island. These are the main farming districts, especially noted for apples and potatoes. But the coasts are generally rugged and deeply indented, while in Newfoundland the greater part of the province is rocky and rather barren. The sea and seafaring have long had a vital influence on the Maritimes, and on the whole farming is of lesser importance here. From the teeming fisheries of the Grand Banks and the coastal waters come great catches of cod, herring and other fish, much of which is sold in southern Europe or in the West Indies.



THE VARIETY OF CANADA'S PRODUCE FOR WORLD MARKETS

On land, the large forested areas of the Maritimes produce valuable crops of lumber and pulp-wood; and here again Maritime pulp and paper cross the ocean to Europe as well as going to the United States. Mining has long been carried on in Newfoundland and Nova Scotia and is beginning to be developed in New Brunswick. Newfoundland has deposits of iron ore and copper ore, while Nova Scotia has good quantities of coal. But the coal and iron are not found close to each other and so the ore is shipped by sea for smelting, especially to the big plant of the Dominion Steel Company at Sydney.

Between the Appalachians and the Shield, the St. Lawrence valley and plain reaches nine hundred miles into the heart of North America. Here a narrow valley that starts in Quebec along the river banks gradually widens out to a broad rolling plain in Ontario between the Great Lakes. Fertile soil, plentiful rainfall, and a growing season lengthened by the moderating influence of the Great Lakes, has permitted prosperous mixed farming, fruit growing and dairying to develop here, and thick settlement has spread throughout the valley.

The St. Lawrence is the great highway of the region. It has repeatedly been improved by deepening its channels and construct-

ing canals. Its waters also provided power to drive early plants and mills in this area. Now they produce vast quantities of hydro-electricity to turn the wheels of industry. Cheap power has hastened the growth of numerous industries in the St. Lawrence basin, although much of their raw materials come from the Shield or have to be imported. The main source of wealth in this rich heartland of Canada from Quebec to Windsor is manufacturing of many kinds. And while it manufactures a great deal for the rest of the country, many of its products also seek markets abroad.

North of the St. Lawrence valley and sweeping in a great curve around Hudson Bay is the Precambrian Shield, the remains of an ancient mountain range worn down by the unbelievable weight of vanished ice caps. Though the soil is thin and poor, and granite ridges thrust through it in every direction, wide tracts are covered with priceless evergreen forests, from which lumber and pulp-wood are cut. Hydro-electric power transforms the pulp into paper, to supply the presses of the United States especially, so that newsprint is one of the chief items in Canada's trade with her southern neighbour.

The Shield is the greatest mining area in the Americas, full of many kinds of mineral wealth. In many parts of the Shield gold is mined, while the Sudbury area itself produces most of the world's nickel. Iron ore comes from Steep Rock, northern Quebec and Labrador. And in the Northwest Territories uranium ore is mined in increasing quantities. Once more the great bulk of the Shield's mineral products are exported to world markets, but especially to the United States, which more and more depends on Canadian supplies to round out her own mineral needs.

Between the Shield and the western mountains, the Great Plains rise towards the Rockies in three giant levels or steppes: the Manitoba Lowland, famous for grain and mixed farming, the flat Saskatchewan Plain, the great wheat belt of Canada, and the Alberta Plain, a vast windswept treeless area of grassland that has been used for wheat growing and cattle raising. North of the prairie grasslands, in the wooded parklands, mixed farming and cattle

ranching are carried on, while to the west, the foothills of the Rockies are the main Canadian cattle kingdom. The grain, meat and dairy products of this fertile Plains region again go largely to the world market, since it produces so much more than Canada's own fifteen million people can consume. Our western grain has long supplied Britain and neighbouring European lands with much of their daily bread.

But the Plains have more besides their fertile farmlands. Great deposits of soft coal are being developed. Extensive oil and natural gas fields have been found around Edmonton and elsewhere. As a result of discoveries such as these, industries have sprung up to change the largely agricultural character of the prairie west. This new manufacturing development makes use of some of the oil and gas, while the remainder goes to eastern industries, or to the United States.

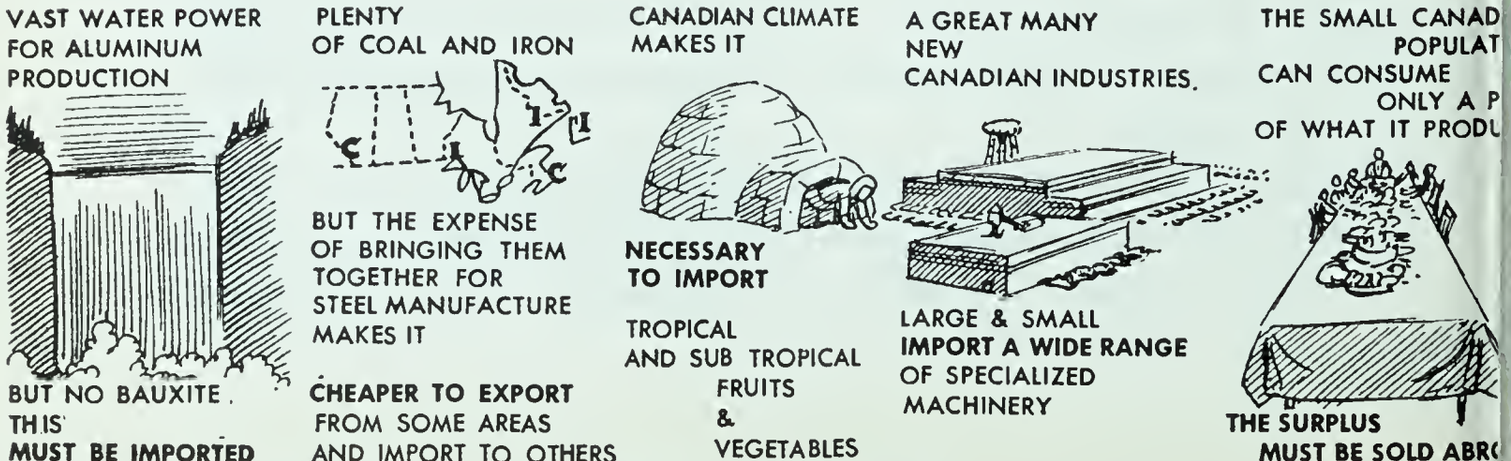
Beyond the Plains, in British Columbia and the Yukon, is the Cordilleran region, marked by lofty snow-capped mountain ranges, great forests, and sometimes long valleys or dry inland grazing country. The moist Pacific slopes of this region are particularly noted for lumber: tall Douglas fir, red cedar and other soft woods that are often shipped from the port of Vancouver to markets all around the world. Within the mountains lies mineral wealth, from gold and silver to lead, zinc and coal. Recently hydro-electric power has been generated from the rushing, mountain rivers and used to operate huge smelter plants, such as that of the Aluminum Company of Canada at Kitimat. Lowlands on Vancouver Island or at the mouth of the Fraser are rich farming areas, while sheltered inter-mountain valleys grow large orchard crops. Off the coast valuable catches of salmon and halibut are taken yearly. Once more these main Pacific coast 'crops' of lumber, fish and minerals supply far more than Canada can use at home, and so they must largely be sold abroad.

In sum, a quick survey of Canada makes clear that this nation has been blessed with great and varied natural resources, although the variety is usually limited in any one region. The development

of such rich resources has determined the pattern of economic life in the various regions of Canada, and the high standard of living in the country as a whole. Our resources, then, have made us one of the most prosperous of the world's peoples, for our land yields a wealth of foodstuffs and raw materials, while many other nations are far less well endowed.

On the other hand, while Canada produces huge quantities of certain kinds of goods, there are many others she cannot produce, for her cool climate and great barren stretches of land set firm limits here. Furthermore the scattering of her resources — iron in Labrador, coal in the prairies or Nova Scotia, factory population in Ontario and Quebec — makes it hard for her to use everything efficiently at home. A lot of it may be better sold abroad. And in any case, her fairly small population means that Canada can consume only a part of the raw materials that she produces in such abundance. And so, enormously rich in some things, lacking in others, our nation depends greatly on world trade. Thus we sell our big surpluses abroad, and buy in return what we do not or cannot produce ourselves. Because we have so much to sell, we can live very well indeed — but because we must sell, we are vitally dependent on world trade.

The demands of the Second World War caused a tremendous growth of manufacturing in Canada, and so lessened our reliance on producing and selling mainly raw materials. Indeed, we can now use far more of them at home. After the war Canadian industrial power was directed to peacetime production, and when the demand for manufactured goods continued to increase, Canadian industry expanded at a dazzling pace. Canada now ranks as one



CANADA DEPENDS ON WORLD TRADE

of the most highly industrialized states in the world. Hence she makes many of the finished products that once she had to import.

Yet to continue such growth and prosperity, Canada still depends on world trade. She must still sell her surplus supplies of food and products such as lumber, paper and minerals abroad, as well as find new outlets for her increasing quantities of manufactured goods. Some raw materials such a bauxite for processing into aluminum must be imported, as well as tin and certain other metals. Complex machinery Canada does not make, tropical products she cannot grow — these too must be bought abroad and paid for by exports. And so Canada remains tied to world trade. In fact, she is the third greatest exporting nation on earth.

This dependence on trade naturally leads to many contacts abroad, and at the same time greatly influences Canada's policies towards other nations. Above all, she must always be interested in a peaceful world of freely flowing trade, whenever she turns to consider questions beyond her borders. Thus do geography and economics affect her world outlook. But another strong influence affecting her view of world problems comes from the nature of her own people, a mixture of French, British and other stocks. They too require attention if we are to understand twentieth-century Canada.

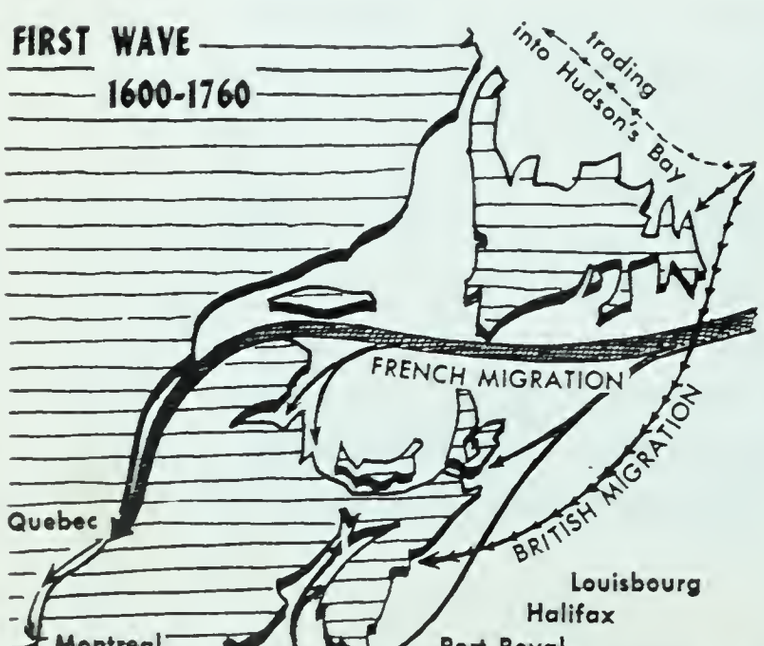
3. The Canadian People

(a) The Earlier Waves of Settlement. The geographic controls of climate, topography and natural resources, as well as nearness to routes of transportation, have determined to a considerable degree how and where the people of Canada live. There is also the concentration of many Canadians today in industrial regions and in cities, a part of the general pattern of our machine age. But closely connected with these geographic and economic influences that have shaped our people, is the vital historical fact that Canada grew up as a partnership of two great communities, a French- and an English-speaking one. The partnership

of the English and French language groups has resulted from compromises and concessions and many debates among Canadian leaders and people. It continues to exist, despite the fact that today there are actually more than forty other language groups to be found among the people who make their homes in Canada.

Slightly less than half of Canada's fifteen million people are now of British stock, while the French-speaking group forms nearly a third of the total. The remainder, about a fifth, is made up of people who came from various countries of Europe, together with a sprinkling from Asiatic countries as well as the original Eskimos and Indians. Thus groups of Canadians may have many different characteristics due to their different backgrounds, while at the same time they are all linked together in a fascinating, complex pattern of many bits and pieces that has been aptly called the 'Canadian mosaic'. Let us see how this colourful pattern of the Canadian people took shape.

As we have said, the first settlements of Europeans in Canada – in the Maritimes and along the St. Lawrence – were mainly French. But those in Acadia, as the French called Nova Scotia, came under British control soon after 1700. Some years later at Halifax an English settlement was started, while German Protestant settlers were located at Lunenburg and other coastal points. The Acadian French were largely expelled in 1755, and their vacant farms were occupied by American settlers from New England. Irish people came from Ulster, Yorkshiremen from England. Scottish Highlanders started homes in Prince Edward Island and Nova Scotia, especially on Cape Breton Island. Thus the Maritime region changed from an area of French communities to one of varied national groups, though these were mostly English-speaking and of British origin.



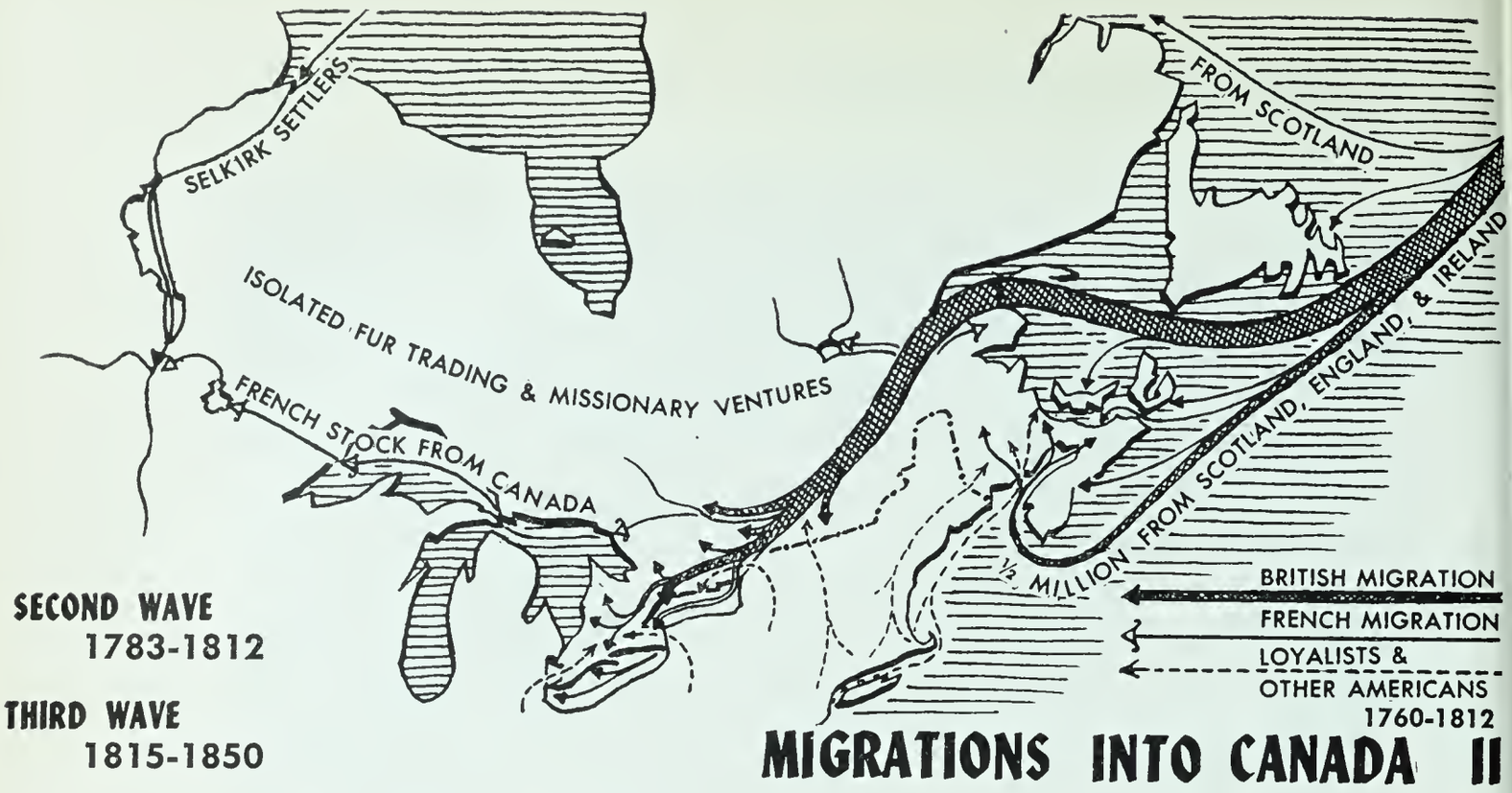
MIGRATIONS INTO CANADA -I

After the fall of New France, small numbers of British merchants settled down at Quebec and Montreal, and grew in wealth and commercial importance. But they were too few to affect the mass of French-Canadian people, whose customs, language and beliefs continued practically unchanged. Then the American Revolution brought the Loyalist migration to Canada. Those who went to Nova Scotia and Prince Edward Island, and founded New Brunswick, established a strong feeling of loyalty and reverence for British traditions that has lasted to the present time. The Loyalists who sought new homes along the St. Lawrence also established a new English-speaking province in Upper Canada, and Ontario today is likewise still influenced by the Loyalist tradition. A steady flow of American settlers followed the Loyalists into Upper Canada, moreover, until the War of 1812 aroused such anti-American feeling that this immigration practically ceased.

In the years thereafter, the French group remained largely in Quebec or Lower Canada. They continued to keep their special ways, and to live quietly by farming the soil that had always been theirs. In marked contrast, the British stock spread actively and widely over the rest of Canada, laying the foundations of British institutions and traditions which would be widely accepted by later settlers from different European countries.

After the close of the Napoleonic Wars in 1815, unemployment and distress in the British Isles drove hundreds of thousands of people each year to seek new homes in North America. Canada's share was close to half a million English, Scots and Irish settlers who began life anew in Newfoundland, Prince Edward Island, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick and Upper Canada. By 1850 the population was three and a half times what it had been in 1815, and the 'British' character of the country was considerably strengthened.

Canada's population grew more slowly for the next half century after 1850. The United States was the promised land to most Europeans who left their native countries. Nevertheless, the discovery of gold along the Fraser and in the Cariboo region caused a rush



MIGRATIONS INTO CANADA II

of several thousand British, American and Canadian settlers to British Columbia, and meanwhile a handful of Scots and French-speaking 'Metis' had settled at the Red River. Furthermore, once the Dominion had taken over the West after 1870, and began to survey it, this vast area began to attract a trickle of settlers. People from Ontario pushed westward in search of cheap land. Icelanders started fishing and farming settlements along the shores of Lake Winnipeg. People from Norway, Denmark and Sweden, and German-speaking Mennonites, were also among the early pioneers of the plains, but these first groups were small.

(b) The Twentieth Century Adds New Variety. Migration remained at a low level until the closing years of the nineteenth century. Then a torrent of immigrants started to pour in, for the best free land in the United States had now been occupied, and there was a great demand for new wheat-producing areas to be opened up. Railway construction, the development of mining resources and the expansion of lumbering, also brought prosperity and full employment to Canada. A wave of American pioneer settlement flowed north into the Canadian prairies, bringing with it many returning Canadians who had tried their luck in the American West. Across the Atlantic moved another tide of settlers from the British Isles. From these two sources there came some two million people in the years up to the outbreak of war in 1914. They

went to British Columbia, to eastern cities and factories, but above all to the empty prairies. Their coming resulted in the forming of two new provinces, Alberta and Saskatchewan, and the adding of many people to Manitoba.

During the same time there arrived in Canada almost another million immigrants from the various countries of Europe: from Scandinavia, Germany and Austria, from Belgium and the Netherlands, and from Russia, Poland and Romania. Generally speaking, the majority of these new settlers moved to the western provinces, while the rest of them went into lumbering, mining and industrial areas of Ontario and Quebec. The gates were now wide open to Europe, new settlers were welcome regardless of country of origin – though Canada profited from American experience and required medical examination before anyone was admitted.

The flow of new citizens was stopped by the Great War of 1914-1918, but it revived from 1919 to 1930. Poles and Ukrainians moved to the Prairie provinces and to Ontario. Romanians tilled the land, chiefly in Ontario and Saskatchewan. Jugoslavs were attracted to mining and lumbering camps. Hungarians and Belgians worked in the tobacco and sugar beet fields of southern Ontario and on the wheatlands of the western provinces. The Dutch farmed in Ontario and the West. Italians centred in or near Montreal, in the industrial areas of Ontario, and in British Columbia. Russians settled in Montreal, in various parts of Ontario and in Saskatchewan and Alberta. Mennonites and Doukhobors formed religious communities of their own in Alberta and British Columbia. Thus people from many language and religious groups established themselves in Canada, in areas reaching from the Atlantic to the Pacific.

During the first half of the twentieth century, Canada for the first time became a melting pot like the United States. Slowly the new settlers accepted Canadian ways of gov-

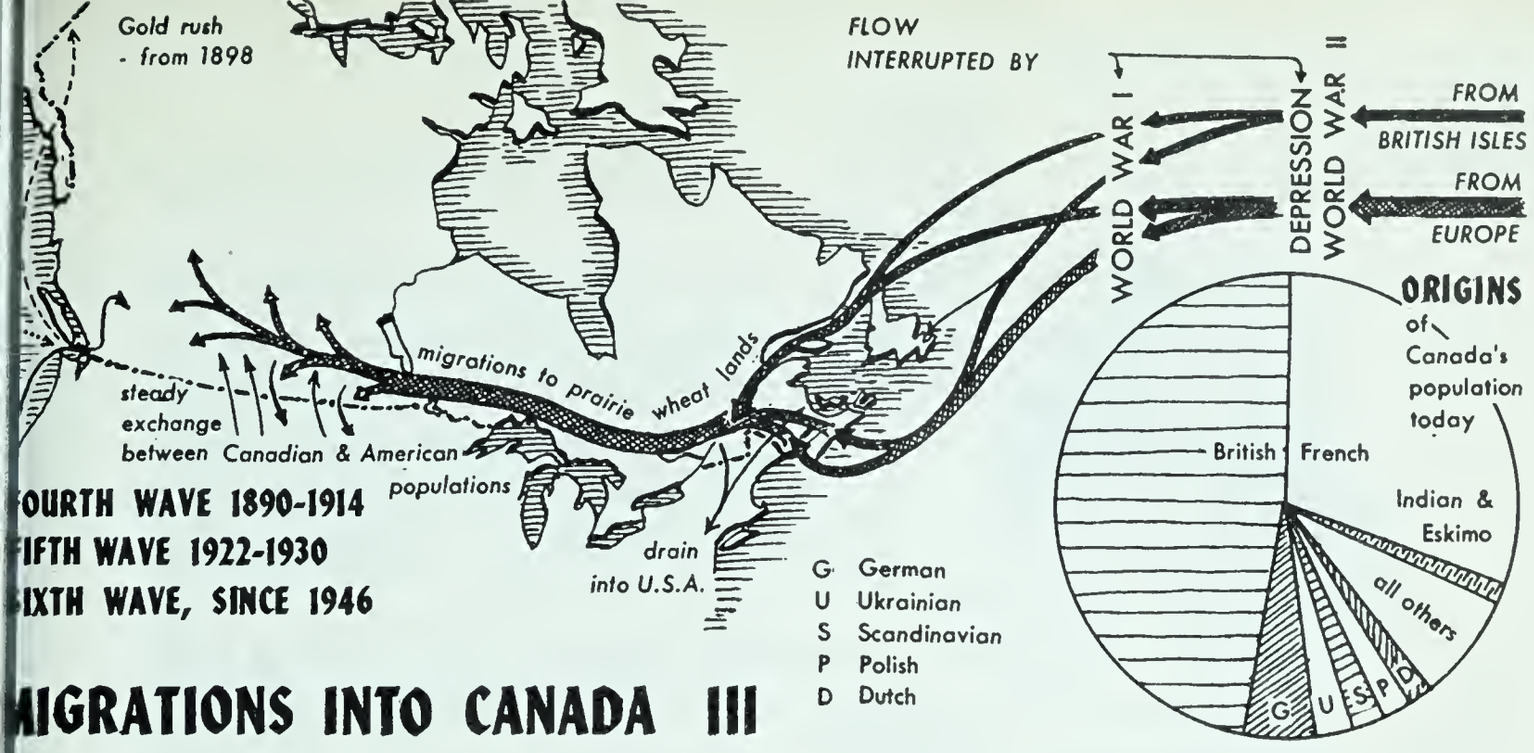


ernment and living and sent their children to Canadian schools. Usually this younger generation learned to speak English; and because English-speaking Canada had wider opportunities for development than did French Canada, they became part of the English-speaking community and added increasingly to its strength.

Depression and unemployment during the 1930's halted immigration. Restrictions were placed on the number of people allowed into the country, which was quite unable to provide work enough for the people already in it. Then the need for production in the Second World War ended unemployment, while a great shift in population took place from rural areas to war factories in industrial centres. This trend, which had started during the First World War and continued even during the depression, became a Canada-wide movement, as people moved from the West and Maritimes to the cities of central Canada.

Immigration revived in the post-war boom times after 1945, as laws were changed to permit displaced persons to come to Canada. Germans, Poles, and people from Baltic countries entered, as well as more Dutch and British. According to the 1951 census, Canada's population had risen to 14,009,429. The effects of immigration on this population may be seen by studying the ancestry of Canadians citizens as recorded by this census. The leading origins are as follows: British Isles, 6,709,685; French, 4,319,167; German, 619,995; Ukrainian, 395,043; Scandinavian, 283,024; Netherlands, 264,267; Polish, 219,845.

Population in Canada has always been subject to constant influences from the United States. Due to the better opportunities that could sometimes be found in that country, many Canadians have migrated to the United States during the past century, where they now form the largest foreign-born element. Large numbers of Americans have also moved to Canada throughout its history. Then too, the powerful voice of this big neighbour is easily heard in Canada, through American television and radio, or movies and the popular press. These widespread influences have hastened the adoption of an English-speaking culture or way of life among the



new arrivals in Canada – although much of this culture is really American in origin.

While Canadians of British origin now form less than half of the total population, the English-speaking group as a whole has thus been steadily increased by new Canadians. The French-speaking group has become relatively smaller, but more determined to maintain its own distinctive customs and beliefs. At the same time, the rapid growth of industry and urban communities in recent years in what was once unchanging Quebec, has helped to make living conditions there more similar to those in English-speaking Canada. And this has tended to lessen the divisions between the two great language or culture groups in Canada.

4. Two Canadian Ways of Life

(a) The Culture of English-Speaking Canada. Canadian culture, like the Canadian population, contains many different streams that have had their sources in the countries of Europe and in the United States. Slowly these streams of ideas, arts, traditions and customs are mingling, producing a distinctive Canadian form of culture. Yet most distinctive of all is the fact that Canada really has two main cultures in a single state: those of its French- and English-speaking communities. It is a 'bilingual' and 'bi-cultural' country. The two groups still grow much

to themselves, though one can find certain things that they both share — for instance, a common loyalty to Canada and its system of government, a common feeling for the grandeur of our great northern land, expressed in painting, music and poetry, and common patterns of everyday living, which now is not so different for a French-speaking factory worker in Sorel and an English-speaking machinist in Hamilton.

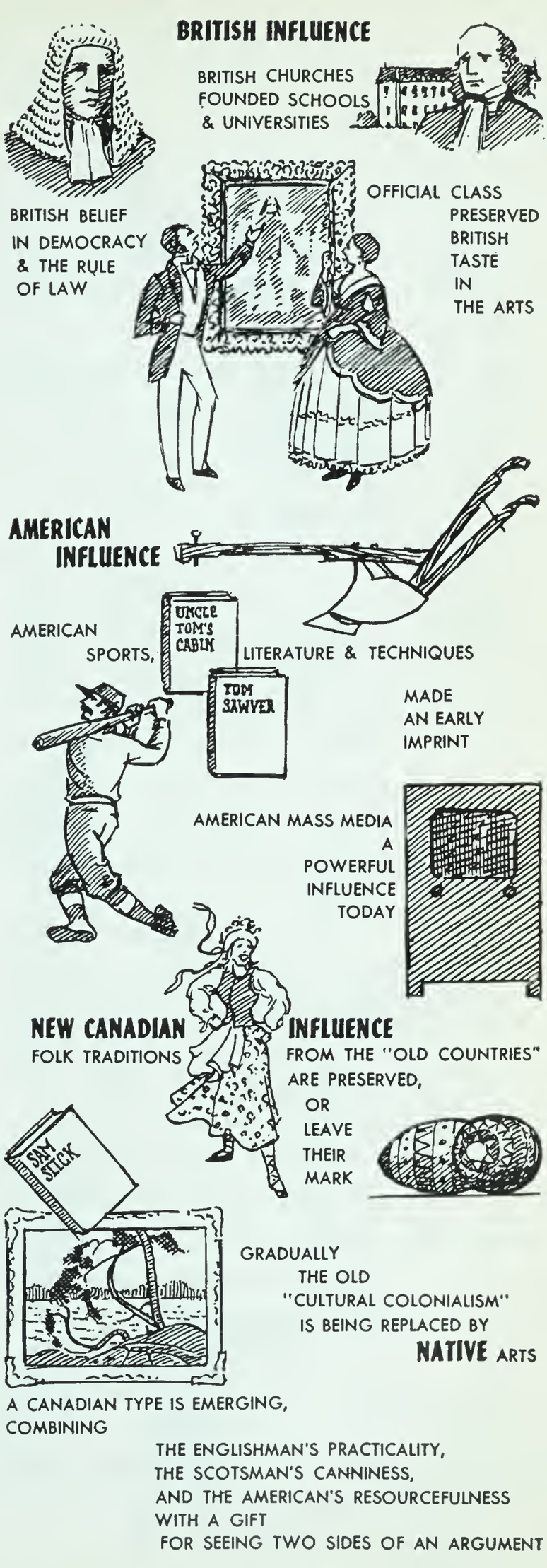
Of course the great majority of Canadians today have an English-speaking culture. At the start this was strongly marked by British influences, for in early colonial days, learning, literature, painting and music came almost entirely from the British Isles, as did the bulk of the settlers. And aspiring Canadian authors and poets looked to Britain for approval of their works. English clergymen of the Anglican Church, Scottish Presbyterian ministers, Irish Roman Catholic priests, leaders of British Methodism and of other denominations, all carried on ardent missionary efforts in Canada, and largely laid the foundations for English-speaking Canada's school system and universities. A long line of governors, officials, military leaders, teachers and journalists also maintained close contacts between Britain and the Canadian colonies. Thus British ideas and viewpoints were transported to the New World along with British law and government, and they flourished there. No break in Britain's cultural influences on Canada took place like that which the American Revolution brought to the United States. Instead British institutions and customs were regarded as a sure defence against any possible union with the United States. And so in culture, as in government, a strong and steadying British tradition was established in Canada. It continues to the present day, although it has been increasingly adapted to fit conditions of life on this more democratic and informal North American continent.

Another mighty force which has influenced English-speaking culture has stemmed from across the long, open border to the south. From the United States has come a steady flow of ideas, viewpoints, and American ways of doing things that fit in readily with condi-

tions of life in this similar land of Canada. Today Canadians constantly feel the impact of American culture through literature, movies and broadcasts, the sports that both countries enjoy, and the ever-increasing tourist traffic between them. Through these many channels they are kept well informed of 'the American way of life', and without doubt they have been greatly affected as a result. Yet Canada continues to be different from the United States. She has gained much from her American neighbours – but they have come to see themselves that Canadians are 'not quite the same'!

The culture of English-speaking Canada has also been enriched by the various groups of immigrants from many lands. These new people brought with them the ancient cultural traditions of their ancestors, their literature, music, painting, drama, dances and handicrafts. Some are doing excellent work to carry them on and adapt them to Canada.

From these influences – British, American and new Canadian – we may well judge that the main forces acting on the culture of English-speaking Canada have come from outside the nation, and



ENGLISH CANADIAN CULTURE

not from within. This has largely been true because while Canadians were struggling so long and so hard to change a vast rugged domain into a nation, they were content in their arts to imitate the examples of Britain and the United States — or almost anything outside Canada itself. Yet in recent years English-speaking Canadians have increasingly broken away from outside traditions and have made progress in their own kind of creative writing, painting and music, as well as in other fields which, you may recall, were discussed as parts of Canadian culture in the book *Canada and the Americas.*

In general, English-Canadian culture is like both British and American in stressing the rights of the individual, a system of free, democratic government, and a practical rather than a theoretical approach to problems. While it does not ignore the past, it looks more to the future and is ever ready for change. Its outlook is closer to that of the business or industrial world than to that of the farm or the Church (as is the case in French Canada), and, on the whole, it has been the initiative and energy of English-speaking Canadians that have led to the great material development of this country.

(b) The Culture of French-Speaking Canada. The culture of the strong French-speaking minority in Canada has been less discussed in the earlier books of this series. Yet since it is so distinctive in this nation — while English Canadian culture, after all, is still largely an offshoot of British or American — we will give it particular attention here.

Unlike English culture, the French has long been cut off from effective outside influences, and so has grown far more from native sources. In fact, it has depended on the determination of French-Canadian leaders and people to maintain their own ways of life on this continent. This is most clearly seen in Quebec, the stronghold of French culture, but there are also scattered French-speaking blocks in the Maritimes and in the Prairie Provinces. And the fact that these various French groups have been able to keep their own separate identity so long, while living in an overwhelming English-speaking North America, has largely been due to the tough, deep-

rooted characteristics of French-Canadian culture itself.

These characteristics go right back to the early days of New France. At that time, institutions, customs and ideas were brought with the settlers from old France, and altered to suit the needs of life in the New World. For example, the old French feudal system was introduced into New France as the seigneurial system of land-holding. Landowners or seigneurs were granted great tracts of land and were expected to secure settlers to work these seigneuries. These settlers, or habitants, paid small rentals in labour and produce for the use of farmland. Seigneur and habitant worked together on the common task of clearing land: the French often attacked the wilderness as a community led by the seigneur and the priest. From the struggles to clear the soil and to hold it, the French developed a deep devotion to the land which has continued to the present day.

From old France there also came the tradition of strong authoritarian rule under an all-powerful monarch. The royal authority in the colony was exercised by the king's appointed officials, the gov-



ernor, intendant and bishop, and laws were made by them as edicts or orders. French law was also introduced into Canada, and through usage became the law of a rural people, with a particular emphasis on the family, land-owning and inheritance. It still exists as the civil law of Quebec today.

Authoritarian control was readily accepted by the French colonists because they were accustomed to it and had not really known a parliamentary system at home, such as that of Britain. And in New France this type of rule often proved to be benevolent and helpful, as it worked to aid the growth of the settlement. Hence, although the influences of the frontier made French Canada's settlers more independent than the people of old France, they showed little of the desire to develop more democratic ways of life that was so evident in the English colonies in America.

The willingness of the French settlers to accept authority was further strengthened by the customs and the teachings of their Roman Catholic Church. The Church that came with them from France rested on strong central authority. It stated definite beliefs that were to be accepted without question by its members. Furthermore the bishop was a high officer of the colonial government. Royal officials and church leaders worked together in building up the colony. Great missionary efforts were undertaken among the Indians: hospitals and schools were started. Courageous Jesuits faced hostile Indians and became martyrs for the 'glory of God', giving everything, even life itself, to their labours.

The Church that so held men's hearts also became powerful as a great landowner, for various religious orders were helped with grants of large seigneuries. Moreover, from the early days of New France what little schooling there was was carried on by nuns or priests. As more priests were required to continue the work of the church, bright lads were selected from the settlements and given an education at a special school, that later grew into Laval University. Education placed stress on learning the classics and studying Latin. Education has remained in the hands of the Church to



Courtesy Public Archives of Canada

Ursuline Nuns in the early days of French Canada devoted themselves to educating French and Indian children.

the present day, and classical learning is still stressed in the French-speaking schools of Quebec.

As the years passed, more and more priests were drawn from French Canada itself. They knew their people well, and became the accepted leaders of the local communities. Wherever settlement went, so did the parish priest, or curé, and the Church. The priest was a trusted friend and adviser, and a most welcome visitor in any family circle. Thus the village or farming community gathered around the curé and the parish church. Indeed, this church became the centre of daily life — and so it largely continues in French Canada today.

There were Frenchmen whose fiery spirit caused them to resent the authoritarian control of officials and the Church, as well as the seigneurial system of holding land. They drifted away from the parishes to the woods as *coureurs de bois* and fur traders, blazing trails into the wilderness and pointing the way for the establish-

ment of a vast French fur trading empire that reached to the Gulf of Mexico, and westward over the plains. These bold and restless spirits were lost to the French settlements, but we should remember them, and not just think that all the French Canadians were the orderly peaceful group that quietly farmed by the St. Lawrence. French Canada too has had its men of daring and adventure. Today we may still find them on the farthest northern frontiers of Canada, or pioneering on the bush farms of Northern Ontario and Quebec.

New France continued to develop its own strong character in North America, for pioneer conditions of life strengthened habits of self-reliance and steadily altered the old ways brought from Europe. Thus the French in America really became a new people, one which still looked with affection to France but felt their first loyalty lay to Canada. They were proud of the heroic efforts of their missionaries, priests and traders, and particularly were they devoted to their families, their farmlands and their religion. And so French Canada shaped traditions and a culture of its own. The fact that immigration from France had largely ceased before 1700 further helped French Canadian society to grow from its own roots on this continent.

By the time New France passed under British control in 1760 the roots of French Canadian culture were set deep, and they were not to be shaken. Cut off from France, the French Canadian people turned even more to themselves. Then came the French Revolution. Its violent overthrow of the Church, the land-holding system and the monarchy shocked French Canada and destroyed the old France it had known. Henceforth French Canadian culture depended solely on the people living in Canada. Moreover, after the conquest, the British did not seek deliberately to destroy the French way of life: instead they recognized it by the Quebec Act of 1774. Quebec remained a part of British North America after the American Revolution, and was thereby protected by British naval and military might against absorption into the English-speaking United States.

Along the St. Lawrence the French people continued to hold fast to the distinctive way of life which they had already established. As new waves of settlers poured into Canada, the French felt themselves becoming more and more of a minority group surrounded by a foreign culture. They looked to the Church and their priests for leadership. The parish, the village and the family became even stronger units, for keeping the group tightly together seemed to be the only way to preserve the French Canadian identity. Language and education were directed to stress existing differences between English-speaking and French-speaking cultures. And so Quebec remained largely a French Canadian island surrounded by an English-speaking sea.



Courtesy Province of Quebec

A Typical French Canadian Farmhouse

The French population continued to grow, however. The sixty-five thousand at the time of conquest has increased to approximately five million at the present time. Today, as a result, now that the French group is so numerous, it feels more secure. Furthermore, it has found its place in a Canadian nation built on a partnership of the two cultures. Accordingly there are increasing signs that French Canadians are willing to look for a common ground with English-speaking Canada instead of differences. Indeed, more and more they are looking outward from Quebec – but with no thought of abandoning their own cherished ways of life.

(c) What French Canada Brings to the Nation. French Canada has had a tremendous influence on the rest of Canada. While at times, and particularly during the strain of wars, hard feelings have developed between these two divisions, we must recognize that French Canada has also brought much to this nation. The French community has a stability and strength dating from early

days of settlement, and it has helped to keep Canada steady — sometimes even conservative — in an age of rapid change. Among the Canadian people, moreover, few have as great a feeling for the soil as have the French. The 'family farm' has had a vital part in their life, since many of them have been owned and worked by generations of the same family.

Particular emphasis then is placed on the simple life of the agricultural community with its satisfaction in being surrounded by members of the family and friends. This can be a very healthy attitude in our modern age of nervous strain and endless struggle for more money and more possessions. Rural French Canada holds in low regard the hustle and bustle of English-speaking commercial and business life. Many French are willing to leave such enterprises to big companies from English-speaking Canada — though this is changing. Tradition is extremely strong: family tradition, church tradition, and national tradition. All these serve to emphasize the duties that the French Canadian owes to God, his Church, his family, his community or his neighbours. Again this stress on our duties—the things we owe to others instead of to ourselves—can be a very healthy attitude for any nation in the world today.

Generally speaking, then, French-Canadian culture draws its strength from tradition and the past far more than does English Canada or the United States. And so it has contributed in no small degree to making our nation different from Britain and the United States, a difference that thus helps to make us Canadian.

The fact that Canada contains two cultures in a single state has compelled both groups to use compromise, moderation and toleration in order to live together. It was to permit united action, and at the same time to allow basic differences to continue, that the builders of the Canadian nation adopted a federal system of government. This meant that the French Canadians in Quebec could preserve and protect their special interests under a provincial government while sharing with the rest of Canada in governing the nation as a whole. French is the customary and official language of

Quebec. It is also an official language along with English, in proceedings of the federal Parliament and law courts, and appears on bank notes, postage stamps and the like.

When differences do arise which threaten to disturb relations between French and English, they are settled by our political leaders using some practical approach. This has given Canadians an excellent training to deal with complex world problems, many of which involve the rights of minorities or deep-rooted cultural differences. It is little wonder, then, that many useful Canadian proposals have been adopted in part or completely by the United Nations. Canada's experience as a bi-cultural nation has won respectful hearing for her from other nations of the world. At the same time, the need of always fitting together the viewpoints and interests of French- and English-speaking Canadians has greatly affected the framing of Canadian policies in world affairs.

5. The Patterns of Canadian Democracy

Another important factor which greatly affects Canada's role in world affairs is her belief in democracy and her successful experience in working a free system of government. In examining this, we should first try to discover the main principles behind it, that go back to Confederation and far beyond. Both Britain and the United States had strong influence here.

(a) The Underlying Principles. In drawing up plans for Canada's government, the Fathers of Confederation made use of both British and United States practices to produce a truly Canadian combination for the new nation. Canada kept the British parliamentary system, as well as the political customs and methods worked out through centuries of development of the British constitution, described in *Canada and the Commonwealth.*[1] The Crown remained as legal head of the country, with the actual powers of government being exercised by a prime minister and cabinet. British law and law courts, and the great British idea

[1]See Units Four and Five, *Canada and the Commonwealth.*

of ruling according to law were also retained. Yet due to the vast extent of the country, its different regions, and the existence of two cultures, the American federal system was also adopted, though it was altered to suit Canada. Power was divided between a central or federal government and provincial governments, and the division was set forth in the British North America Act. Aside from the British North America Act, which in some ways is like the written United States constitution, Canadians generally look to the law courts and to Parliament, as in Britain, to protect their rights. This form of government has given Canada a high degree of efficient, democratic rule.

Government in Canada is carried on according to the basic democratic belief that it exists only for the benefit and well-being of every citizen, and the money yearly collected as taxes goes to provide services for them. These services are supplied by three distinct levels of government: local, provincial and federal. The duties and authority of these three overlap somewhat, but each has certain defined responsibilities that touch the life of every person in the country: for example, the local government looks after public schools, the provincial government maintains highways, and the central government controls money and banking.

Each level of government operates on certain principles vital to true democracy. First of all, the members of the governing bodies are chosen by the people through election, although these bodies do have permanent officials working under them. Secondly, if a majority of citizens do not approve of the actions taken by the members of a government, that group may be put out of office at the next election, and another group chosen to carry out the wishes of the people. In short, the ordinary citizens have control over their governing bodies and their actions. Thirdly, if some problem arises which sharply divides the community, the province or the nation, the opposing sides rely on discussion and persuasion, not force, to work out an agreement. Feelings may run very high, but the final settlement is made in peaceful and orderly fashion and is then accepted as lawful, without recourse to violence. Finally, and in



Courtesy National Film Board

THE RESPONSIBILITIES OF CITIZENSHIP

A new Canadian takes his oath before the Chief Justice of Canada that he will fulfil his duties of citizenship. In a democracy the government owes services to the citizen, but the citizen also must fulfil his responsibilities to the government.

general, the principle is that the majority rules — but the rights of the minority and of individuals are protected by law.

(b) The Working of Canada's Government. The kind of government that touches the daily life of each citizen the most, and yet was the latest to develop, is municipal or local government. There are two kinds of municipalities, urban and rural, but the organization of these varies widely in the different provinces of Canada. Municipalities are legally established by the government of each province, which determines their powers and duties. But once established, the governing body of the municipality is elected by and responsible to the citizens of that community. In 1953 there were 4,137 municipalities in Canada of which 1,789 were urban.

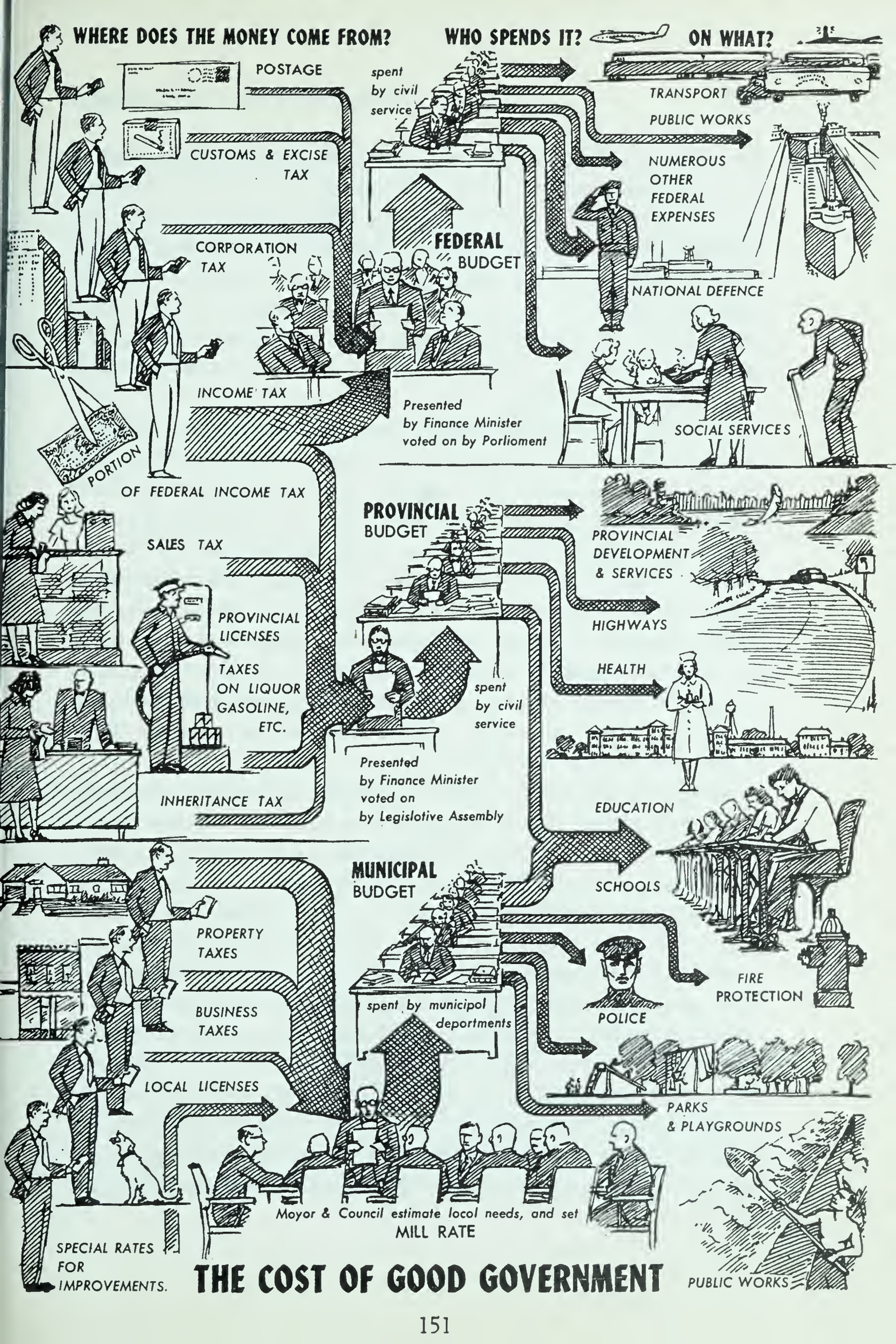
Rural municipalities are fairly large areas where the population is somewhat scattered. They are known as counties, parishes, townships and districts. Urban municipalities are villages, towns and cities. Each is required to have a stated population, but the number varies in different provinces. For example, to become a city in On-

tario a town must have a population of 15,000, while another province requires but 5,000 people.

Municipalities are governed by councils, made up of members elected for terms of office varying from one to four years according to the province's ruling. Elections are held annually. These councils are composed of a head (mayor, reeve, warden, chairman, or overseer) and other members (councillors, aldermen, or controllers). Councils have the right to make local laws, or by-laws, and to levy taxes to provide services for the community. Citizens look to them to deal with schools, roads, and bridges, health, and relief; and in urban areas, with fire protection, police protection, traffic control, hospitals, parks, playgrounds, public libraries, water supply, and garbage removal as well. But money is needed to provide for such community needs, and the large proportion of it comes from local taxes. Local taxes are levied mainly on real estate or property. There are also local improvement or special assessment taxes to provide for pavements and similar works. In growing communities the local tax bill often is quite a heavy burden.

Recently there have been increased public demands for improved services and expanding educational and recreational programmes as well as community planning. The increased cost of such programmes has aroused sharp differences of opinion among Canadians. These matters can be settled by citizens accepting their responsibilities of keeping informed, reaching conclusions and voting wisely. Local government is self-government in action, where the ordinary citizen may easily take part. It is the training ground for the broader phases of democratic government in the province and in the nation.

The oldest form of self-government in Canada is actually the provincial parliament, which has developed from the elected assembly first granted to Nova Scotia as early as 1758. These provincial or colonial assemblies were given control over local affairs and gained wide powers of self-government after Lord Durham's Report. But provincial governments failed to co-operate in matters that required united action, such as railway building, trade, de-


WHERE DOES THE MONEY COME FROM?
WHO SPENDS IT?
ON WHAT?
POSTAGE
CUSTOMS & EXCISE TAX
CORPORATION TAX
INCOME TAX
PORTION
OF FEDERAL INCOME TAX
spent by civil service
FEDERAL BUDGET
Presented by Finance Minister voted on by Porliament
TRANSPORT
PUBLIC WORKS
NUMEROUS OTHER FEDERAL EXPENSES
NATIONAL DEFENCE
SOCIAL SERVICES
SALES TAX
PROVINCIAL LICENSES
TAXES ON LIQUOR GASOLINE, ETC.
INHERITANCE TAX
PROVINCIAL BUDGET
spent by civil service
Presented by Finance Minister voted on by Legislotive Assembly
PROVINCIAL DEVELOPMENT & SERVICES
HIGHWAYS
HEALTH
EDUCATION
SCHOOLS
PROPERTY TAXES
BUSINESS TAXES
LOCAL LICENSES
MUNICIPAL BUDGET
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fence and so on. It was then that meetings of provincial representatives at Charlottetown and Quebec agreed to plans for forming a new nation, and drafted them for the British North America Act. By this measure the provincial parliaments in the new Canadian union were left such matters as education, roads, local government, and civil law. The governments of the provinces are organized much like the federal government, with a parliament (or legislature) and a cabinet in each, together with a lieutenant-governor representing the Crown.

Elections are held from time to time to choose people to be members of parliament, to conduct the business of the province. For this purpose the province is divided into a number of units or constituencies, with each constituency having the right to elect one member. Careful preparations are made for the election. Voters' lists are prepared for each constituency and posted in public places so that every person who has the right to vote (and roughly that means everyone over twenty-one) can be certain that his name is on the list. Candidates are selected, ballots are printed, polling places are secured, deputy returning officers and poll clerks are appointed. Then comes the election day, and the counting of the ballots cast for the candidates.

When an election is announced, political groups or parties become very active. A political party is a voluntary organization of men and women who share the same views as to how the province or the nation should be governed. The party usually has a local organization in each constituency to try to get support for their plans and programme. A leader of the party is chosen at a convention of delegates representing the local organizations. Parties hold public meetings in each constituency to select a person to stand for election, and these candidates are generally known as party representatives. After the candidates have been nominated, it is customary for them to hold public meetings throughout the constituency to outline the policy of their party to the voters.

Considerable money is spent on advertising and radio programmes to present the voters with information. People are thus

given a chance to decide on the policy they like the best and the candidate for whom they will vote at the election. It should be pointed out, however, that a person may stand for election without belonging to any political party provided that he is twenty-one, a Canadian citizen, and is not disqualified by the requirements of the law concerning elections.

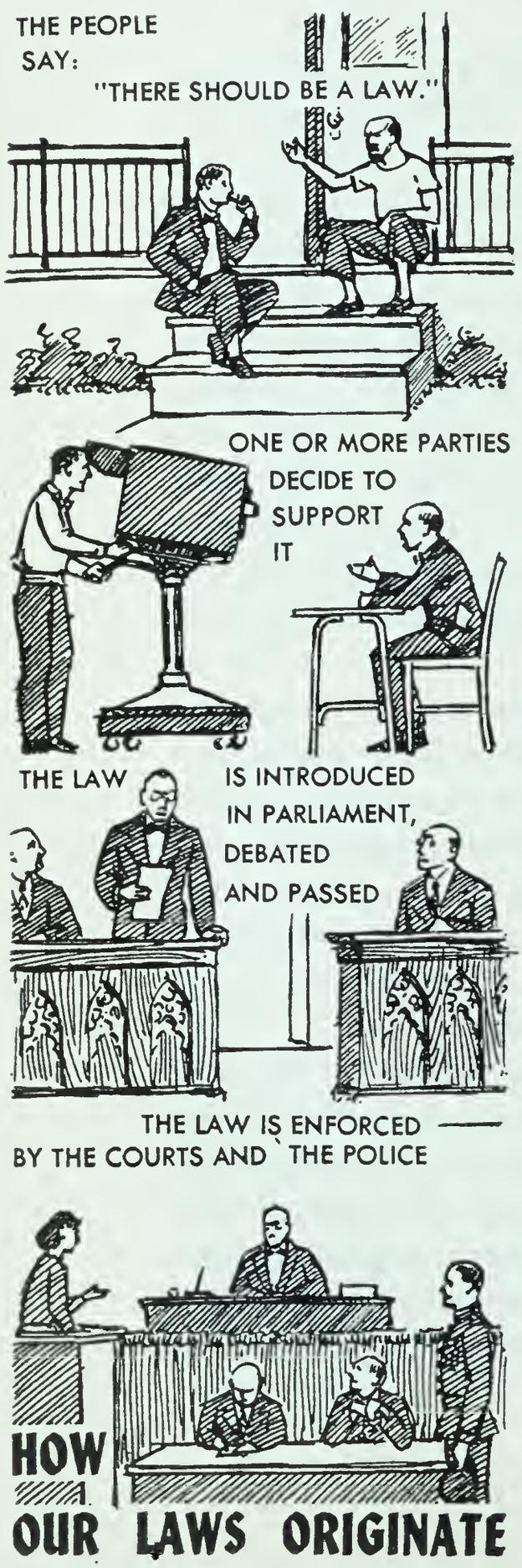
Elections are the voice of the people. Great care is taken to see that the ballot is marked in secret, so that each voter may truly make his choice without fear or favour, and the voting is conducted in an orderly manner in each polling booth. Ballots are counted at the close of the election day, and the candidate who received the largest number of votes is declared elected. The winning candidate becomes a member of the provincial parliament or legislative assembly, and here represents all the people, not merely his party, in the constituency for which he was chosen. The party with the largest number of elected members now has the right to form the government. Its leader becomes the provincial premier or the prime minister. He chooses the other ministers from his supporters in parliament to head the different departments of government, and so makes up his cabinet.

The length of time that a parliament may remain in being is fixed. After this period another election must be held, though one may always be called sooner. At that time if a member has not carried out his duties or lived up to his election promises satisfactorily, the electors can remove him from office by voting for another candidate. Citizens, by using their power as electors, control the government and they can change their representatives in an orderly manner without fear of punishment or revenge.

The federal government is formed or changed in much the same way. It consists of a Governor-General representing the Crown, the Senate, and the House of Commons. The Governor-General is appointed for five years. The Senate consists of 102 members who are appointed for life and represent the different regions of Canada. The House of Commons has 262 members who are elected across the whole country on the basis of representation by popula-

tion. Parliament makes the laws, the cabinet carries them out, and the courts deal with those who are accused of breaking the law.

The cabinet consists of the Prime Minister or Premier and a number of cabinet ministers, as in the provincial governments. The duties of government are dealt with by various departments, each headed by a cabinet minister who is to speak for that branch in the House of Commons. The Prime Minister and cabinet remain in office as long as they have the support of the majority of members in the House of Commons; that is, they are 'responsible' to the Commons, which could vote them out of office.



Members of the House of Commons are divided into two main groups. The party with a majority is called 'Her Majesty's Government' and the minority group (which may contain several other parties) forms the Opposition. Important laws for the country, called bills, are prepared and presented by the Government to Parliament. The Opposition is expected to criticize these measures and suggest how they may be improved in a free and open discussion known as a debate. If a majority of members vote for the bill, it is passed and sent to the Senate for consideration. If the Senate approves of the bill it is signed by the Governor-General and becomes law as an Act of Parliament. Should a bill of the Government's be defeated by the Opposition, the cabinet must resign, and a general election will follow. Then the voters decide by casting their ballots which plan for the

country they support, and the party which has gained a majority of elected members forms the new government. In other words, the practice of responsible government insures our citizens of self-government and freedom on the federal as on the provincial level.

(c) Democracy and the Canadian Nation. To keep these democratic rights alive is the responsibility of every Canadian citizen. We have an excellent system of government, though of course, it is not perfect, and it is our duty to take an interest in it and see that it keeps working properly. For it is well said that a democratic country gets only the government it deserves! Public-spirited citizens are well-informed and take an active part in considering the country's problems. They can make local government efficient and democratic, and require the same from provincial and national governments as well.

If they do not, if the people leave government to 'somebody else' to worry about, then totalitarianism, whether fascism or communism, creeps in. This means a 'total' rule, where the citizen finds he exists for the needs of the government, rather than the government for him, and where he has no rights at all, if the ruling power chooses to ignore them. Thus totalitarian governments, which begin by promising to do everything for the citizen if he will only leave the running of the country to those who know best, soon end by ordering his life completely and by destroying his freedom. Law becomes a mere word for the government's ruthless will, and its police and army rule everything.

Hence, from Canada's proud possession, as a nation, of democratic forms of government, we can judge that she will seek to defend that type of government in the world, and will stand ready to join with other democratic states, such as Britain and the United States, in opposing threats from totalitarian countries. Of course, Canada knows that you cannot impose democracy on another country by force, or it will be meaningless. It must come from within. Therefore, in her world politics, she would have little desire to support any sort of democratic onslaught on totalitarian lands.

But she will be concerned with any totalitarian attempt to overthrow a democratic state. And in particular, she is willing to assist undeveloped countries, as in Asia, to bring themselves forward to democracy, lest they be taken over by communism. For Canada also knows that communism or fascism is frequently warlike, and menaces world peace, and has, as well, little regard for the meaning of honour, justice or human rights in the affairs of nations. And so, the fact that Canada is a peaceful, orderly democracy cannot help but influence her policies in the world at large.

Now we have seen a number of the great factors which have shaped Canada as a nation, and which thus affect her views on world affairs. There is, first, her own gradual emergence as a nation. This has made her more conscious than other American countries, that gained nationhood by a revolution and a sudden breaking away, that no nation can actually stand alone in isolation in the world today, but must always work closely with others — as Canada does in the Commonwealth or the United Nations. There is, secondly, her great resources and expanding industrial production. These make her wealthy and important in the world and yet keep her dependent on world trade for prosperity. Thirdly, there is the nature of her people. Strong British and American influences help link them with their neighbours in the North Atlantic Triangle, while the many groups from European lands also turn Canadian eyes in the direction of countries across the Atlantic.

Fourth is her special bi-cultural character, which can help Canada understand difficult international questions and yet makes always necessary the adjusting of the views of English- and French-speaking citizens when she determines her world policies. And finally, there is Canada's democratic pattern of government, which also greatly influences her views of world relationships. All these and many other factors, then, help shape the role that Canada plays in our twentieth century world. And now, having examined the Canadian nation at home, let us go on to the next step, and see the part it takes today as a member of the great world community of nations.

Learn by Doing

1. Have committees look up reference material on each of the following events in Canadian history and report to the class: (1)
   (a) The fall of New France in 1760
   (b) The coming of the Loyalists
   (c) The War of 1812
   (d) The Rebellions of 1837

2. Have a class discussion on the problems which faced the new country after Confederation in 1867. (1)

3. Have each of five committees select one of the regions of Canada. Draw a map of the region on the board and mark on it geographical facts which the committee believes to be most important. Present the main geographical facts to the class. The five regions are: (2, b)
   (a) The Maritime Provinces
   (b) The St. Lawrence River Valley
   (c) The Precambrian Shield
   (d) The Great Central Plains
   (e) The Pacific Coast

4. (a) Debate the advantages and disadvantages of bringing immigrants to Canada. (3, b)
   (b) What are the main problems of these immigrants and in what ways can native Canadians assist the newcomers?

5. Discuss English and French cultures in Canada, noting their similarities and differences. (4, a and b)

6. Have three committees outline the main responsibilities and sources of revenue of the following: (5, b)
   (a) Federal government
   (b) Provincial government
   (c) Your local government

7. Compare the conduct of elections in a democratic country with those in a dictatorship. (5, b)

Facts to Know

1. Match the following events in Canadian history with the man associated with each: (1)

Defeated the French in 1759	Lord Durham
Led the British in the War of 1812	Louis Lafontaine
Led a rebellion in Upper Canada in 1837	Sir James Douglas
Made a report to the British government on political conditions in Canada	General James Wolfe
A leader in the winning of self-government for Canada	General Brock
	William Lyon Mackenzie
	Lord Selkirk

2. (a) Outline the main reasons which led to Confederation in Canada. (1)
   (b) State briefly the effect that the building of the Canadian Pacific and Intercolonial railways had on Canada. (1)

3. (a) On a map of Canada, mark the mountain ranges, Great Central Plain, and a few of the large rivers. (2, b)
   (b) Name the bodies of water through which the early fur-traders passed in going from Montreal to the prairies. (2, a)

4. Why is Canada an exporting nation? (2, b)

5. Name the main national groups which came to Canada after the following dates and the chief areas where they settled:
   (a) 1783; (b) 1815; (c) 1870; (d) 1890. (3, a and b)

6. In what ways have Britain and the United States affected the culture of English-speaking Canada? (4, a)

7. Outline some of the contributions French-Canadian culture has made to our country. (4, c)

8. "Each level of government operates on certain principles vital to true democracy." List these principles. (5, a)

9. Give the names of those who hold the following offices: (5, b)
   (a) The Governor General
   (b) The Lieutenant-Governor of your province
   (c) The Prime Minister of Canada
   (d) The Premier of your province
   (e) Five federal cabinet ministers
   (f) Five provincial cabinet ministers

10. What are some of the main obligations of Canadian citizens for preserving our democracy? (5, c)

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UNIT FIVE

CANADA, A MEMBER OF THE WORLD COMMUNITY

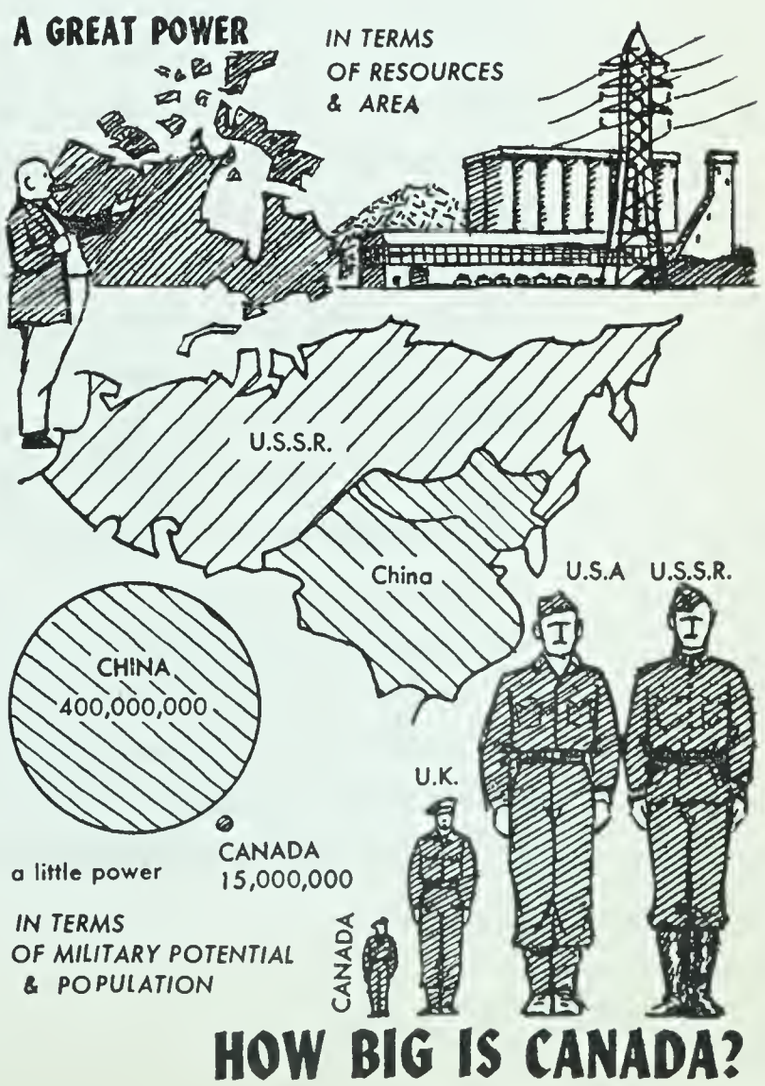
1. *Canada's Place in the World Today*
2. *Canada Becomes a Member of the World Community of Nations*
3. *Canada Takes Part in the World Community*
4. *Canada's Share in Many World Activities*

1. Canada's Place in the World Today

(a) Our Role as a Middle Power. It is not always easy for Canadians to understand clearly the part our country plays in world affairs. On the one hand, we may tend quite naturally to exaggerate our own importance. Conscious of our great natural resources and our growing strength, we may feel that Canada must now be one of the leading world powers. On the other hand, when we think of our small population, and remember that the world today is said to be dominated by two 'superpowers', the United States and the Soviet Union, we may decide that a country like Canada can have no real weight in international affairs.

The truth seems to lie somewhere between these two extremes. Canada is certainly not a 'Great Power' in the sense that such countries as the United States, the Soviet Union, Great Britain, Germany, China or Japan are Great Powers. With our limited population we can never occupy the front of the world stage. In fact we might almost be grateful that such fearful responsibilities are not laid upon us. Yet at the same time it is true to say that no other country of 15 million has as much influence on world affairs as Canada has. Canada has been called a 'middle power', and this seems to be a fair description of our place in the world. Another way of putting this would be to say that Canada is considerably closer to the Great Powers in strength than the small countries are to Canada.

If we think only of population Canada certainly must be classed as a small power. In every continent there are countries with much larger populations than our own; indeed, some countries contain ten, twenty, or even thirty times as many people as Canada does. Since a large population is needed to give a country great military and economic strength, Canada is obviously under a serious handicap. But we should recall that this country makes up for its small population in many important ways. The enormous extent of Canada gives us special importance, especially in this air age, when many international air routes pass across our territory. Moreover, our rich resources and our growing economic power mean that Canada produces many things, such as food and minerals, that are badly needed by other countries. Finally, Canadian leaders have de-



veloped a sense of responsibility and a reputation for fairness in international affairs, which means that our views are always heard with respect by the Great Powers. We all can help to uphold and increase this reputation by constantly seeking to understand world problems.

In the modern world no country can isolate itself from events taking place beyond its borders, but few countries have such a big stake in world affairs as does Canada. This nation's safety may be directly affected by happenings in other countries thousands of miles away. Then, as we have seen, the economic life of Canada is closely tied to that of other countries, since we must sell our great surpluses of goods to other lands in order to buy products that are not grown or made in Canada. Whether these countries can or will buy our goods is of direct and immediate concern to every Canadian.

Seeing that Canada is so greatly affected by world events, it is fortunate that we have some means of influencing their course. This country is a member of various international organizations, some of which have grown up naturally over the years, while others have been specially formed to safeguard and preserve the peace of the world. Some of these organizations are political; that is, they have to do with major questions in the relations between governments of the world — with problems of peace and security, the disputes between nations, and matters of international law. Others are non-political and deal with many other kinds of world activities, from postal services between nations to matters of world health. Delegates from Canada go to these organizations to explain this country's point of view, and there work to ease international strains or to co-operate in international activities.

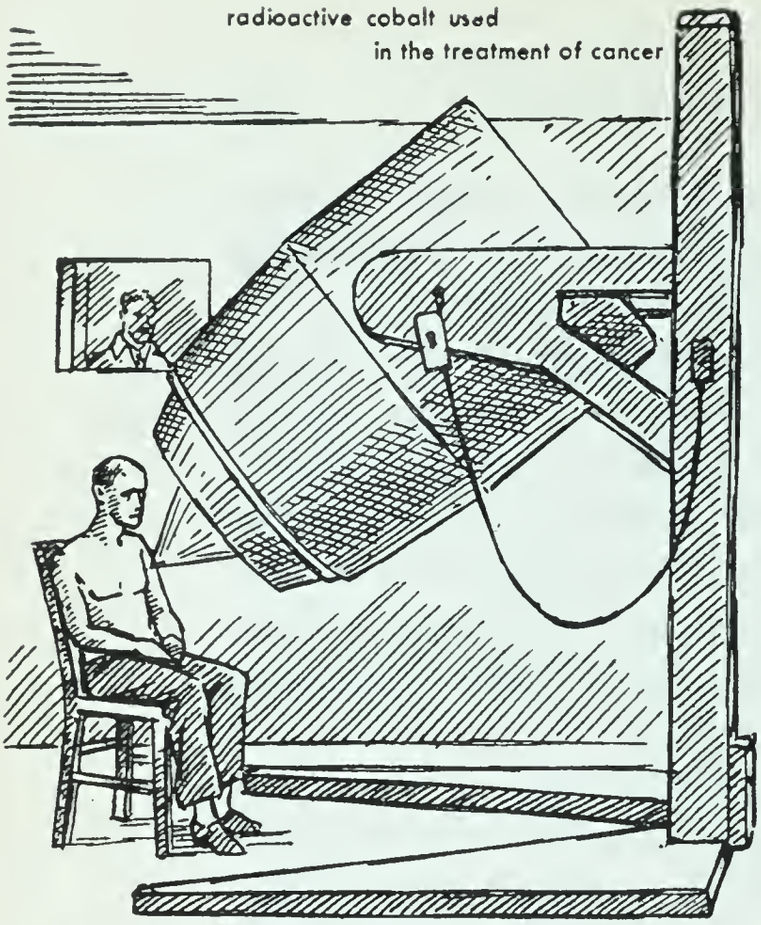
Moreover, Canada, as we know, has specially close relations with two of the Great Powers, Great Britain and the United States, and so can have an influence on the policies which these countries pursue in the world. Thus, although Canada is not a Great Power, she cannot be and is not ignored in the family of nations. Canada is not a 'satellite' or dependent on any other country. Instead she has

her own independent point of view, which is not exactly the same as that of any other nation, and she is certainly important enough for her views to carry considerable weight in the world.

(b) The World Importance of Canada. When we turn to examine more fully the reasons for Canada's importance in the world today, we are struck at once by the fact of her great wealth. As we know, this country has enormous, though not inexhaustible, mineral resources, especially in iron ore, nickel, gold and silver, lead and zinc, and much of the world's supply of wood pulp and newsprint also comes from Canada. In addition, she is a leading food exporter, notably of grains and fish and dairy products. When we remember that one of the world's great problems (some would say the greatest) is hunger, we see at once how vitally important Canada is to other countries. Not only the food but also the other products we export can help to raise the standard of living in less fortunate lands. This ability to supply large amounts of the goods so badly needed in other countries goes far to account for Canada's importance in our modern world.

Through our exports we have the means not only to help ourselves directly, since exports pay for the imports we must have, but also to lessen world tensions arising out of need and poverty. Another way in which Canada helps poorer countries is by providing them with technical aid and by teaching them new scientific methods in agriculture and industry. Canadian experts have gone out to India, Pakistan, South America and other areas to help people to use their own resources more efficiently. In today's world the more advanced countries have a great responsibility to help those who are less well off. Next to the United States, Canada has the highest standard of living in the world, and thus has a particularly strong duty to help others.

Canada is also important in the modern world because of the high degree of scientific knowledge that has been built up in this country. Research in the most advanced scientific methods has been carried on, and new theories have received practical application. A good example is in the field of atomic energy. The Cana-



CANADA'S "COBALT BOMB"

dian government and Canadian scientists had a substantial role, in partnership with the British and the Americans, in the long years of experiment that unlocked the secret of the atom. Since 1945 Canadians have continued to explore the ways in which atomic energy can be used for peaceful purposes. From the experimental centre at Chalk River, on the Ottawa, have come many discoveries, especially in medical science, to improve the welfare of our own and other countries. Canada's work in other fields of science has attracted students from all over the world, who come here to learn new methods which they can take back home.

Canada's ability to produce large quantities of much needed goods, and her progress in the use of modern scientific methods, would be in themselves sufficient to make this country important. But this importance is greatly increased by the facts of her political ties and of her geographic position. Canada does not act alone in the modern world; instead, she co-operates with other nations, and thus has weight and influence in important international associations.

Canada's oldest political tie is of course with the British Commonwealth of Nations, that great voluntary association of peoples reaching around the world. Canada is generally recognized as the senior Dominion in the Commonwealth, since Canadians pioneered in achieving self-government within the British Empire. For this reason, and also because of her economic and military strength, Canada's voice is an important one in the councils of the Commonwealth. The political leaders of the several Commonwealth countries come together at regular intervals to discuss common prob-

lems. Whether they meet in Canada or in other parts of the Commonwealth, Canadian representatives have an important effect on the decisions reached. And so membership in this vast family of nations greatly enhances Canada's position in the modern world.

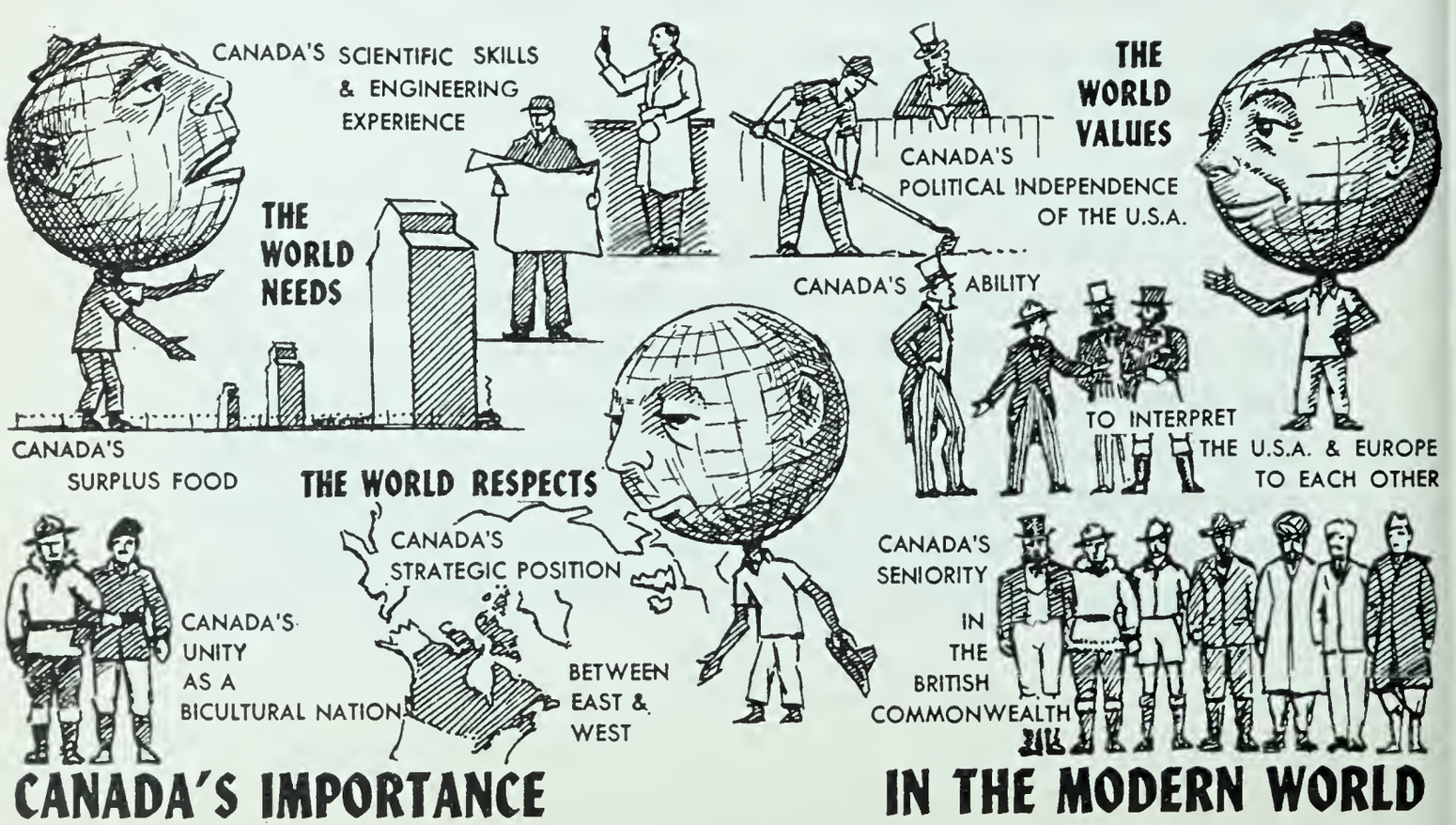
Canada's part in the Commonwealth is distinctive, since she is the only member situated on the American continents. This country thus has a special role, of seeking to harmonize Commonwealth policies with those being followed by the American nations, and particularly by the United States. Indeed, it is sometimes said that Canada is an 'interpreter' between the Commonwealth on the one hand, especially Great Britain, and the American nations on the other, especially the United States. This is an exaggeration, since the Americans and the British are quite capable of talking to one another without an interpreter, and constantly do so. Nevertheless, Canadian insight into the views and reactions of the two large English-speaking countries helps to maintain friendly relations between them. Furthermore, it is highly important that the western countries understand the views of the rising nations of the East. Here Canada's Commonwealth ties with India and Pakistan can help her government to improve relations between them and the United States, the principal leader of the western world today.

Canada's international position is also affected by its location next to the United States. The southern country is probably the world's greatest military power and certainly has the mightiest economy in the world. In recent years American influence has spread out across the globe in ever stronger waves. Some countries have wondered whether to regard the United States as friend or foe. Was it possible to accept American help, and to enter into political and economic agreements with this enormous republic, without becoming a mere satellite – just a puppet moving when the Americans pulled the strings? One answer to these questions was furnished by Canada's own experience. With only one tenth of her great neighbour's population, and exposed to American influences along more than three thousand miles of boundary, Canada yet retains her independence and her own identity. The Canadian

record has thus helped in the forming of a coalition of free nations, led but not dominated by the United States.

Since Canada has never had to accept financial assistance from the United States, as have many other countries, Canadian leaders can speak frankly to the American government on the problems of the western coalition of free nations. Indeed, many countries are anxious to explain their viewpoints to the Canadian government, in the hope of getting Canadian support in discussions with the government at Washington. Similarly, the Canadian government can sometimes explain American policy to European and Asiatic countries more persuasively than can American leaders themselves.

Peaceful and co-operative relations with our neighbours are no more important than harmony at home. We have already noted Canada's character as a bi-lingual and bi-cultural country. We also know that peoples from many countries other than the British Isles and France have found homes in Canada. If Canadians build up a good record of understanding one another and living cheerfully and tolerantly with our own people of different backgrounds, the result can only be to strengthen this country's world position. Any nation which lives peacefully at home will receive respect abroad. Canadians are not alone in having a widely varied popula-



tion; some other countries have much greater differences between groups of their citizens. But it is our task, an honourable one in which we should all take pleasure, to make our record as good as that of any other country.

Finally, we must note the importance of Canada's position on the globe. The modern long-range airplane has placed this country at the very centre of some of the world's most significant commercial and military air routes. Flights between the United States and northern or western Europe, on the one hand, and to and from northeastern Asia, on the other, usually pass over a considerable portion of Canadian territory. In eastern Canada there are great airfields at Gander, in Newfoundland, and Goose Bay, in Labrador, which provide stop-over points for trips between Europe and North America. In western Canada, Edmonton has become a similar refuelling point for flights between Japan and the centres of North American population. Thus the Great Powers of Europe, Asia and North America have a vital concern in Canada's policy with respect to air routes. Since Canadian airlines also must fly over other countries, it is necessary to work out friendly and just arrangements between this country and others. One of Canada's valuable natural resources now is the air above its lands and waters!

Canada's strategic position in the air age is of course also a source of possible danger. With tense relations between the United States and the Soviet Union, Canadians can never forget that the outbreak of war would place this country in the very front lines of air warfare. The mighty triangle of Canada's north, with its apex at the North Pole, and its base extending from the Yukon to Davis Strait, is clearly part of North America's first line of defence. In recent years, Canada and the United States have co-operated to build air bases and radar stations in the north to protect the continent from invasion.

In many ways, then, Canada is a vitally important member of the world community of nations. Although not a Great Power, Canada makes decisions in many fields, whether political, economic or military, that are of great significance to other countries. Some-

times it is easy for Canadians to forget this fact, because it is only recently that this country has emerged on the world scene in so vital a way. We should take a closer look, therefore, at Canada's rise to world importance in our own twentieth century.

2. Canada Becomes a Member of the World Community of Nations

(a) Canada Gains Full Rights of Nationhood. We should recall that at the beginning of the twentieth century the world situation had little resemblance to that of our own day. The United States was just emerging as a country to be reckoned with in world affairs, and Canada was normally thought to be simply a colony, with no distinctive views in foreign affairs. Canada, like the other Dominions, Australia and New Zealand, had control of her own internal affairs, but left the conduct of external relations to the Imperial Government at London. This arrangement then suited most Canadians, who were little concerned with world problems, and who believed that the Canadian interest and the British interest would be the same on all important questions. Since the British had had long experience in conducting foreign affairs, Canadians were usually pleased to be able to leave things in such skilled hands. And so, throughout the world, British diplomats looked after matters that came up in Canada's relations with other countries.

Gradually, however, people in Canada were coming to feel that the existing system was unsatisfactory. One problem was that Great Britain had far-flung interests in which this country had little apparent concern. How far should Canada back up British policies in distant areas, when Canadians had had no voice in making such policies? The question came up sharply in 1899 with the outbreak of war between Great Britain and the Boers in South Africa. The answer of the Canadian government was that this country must be the sole judge of its contribution to overseas wars.



Canadians in the South African War

In this case a volunteer force of several thousand Canadians was sent to South Africa, where it fought as part of the British Army. This effort was really a loyal desire to help the mother country when in trouble rather than an independent venture into world affairs by Canada. Yet it gave Canadians a new awareness of world problems, and some indication of the part that they might have to play in them.

How should the world problems of the British Empire be handled? One view, strongly supported by some people both in Britain and Canada, was that the Empire should be drawn closely together in a tighter organization. Representatives from all parts of the Empire would be sent to the Imperial Parliament at London, which would then make decisions binding on the whole. The Canadian government, under Sir Wilfred Laurier, strongly and successfully opposed this view, which was known as Imperial Federation. Laurier believed that it would be healthier for the Empire to become a loose association, united by good will and mutual confidence, rather than a tightly-knit organization, bound by formal and legal ties. Laurier thus kept the way open for Canada to develop in her own way as a nation in the twentieth century.

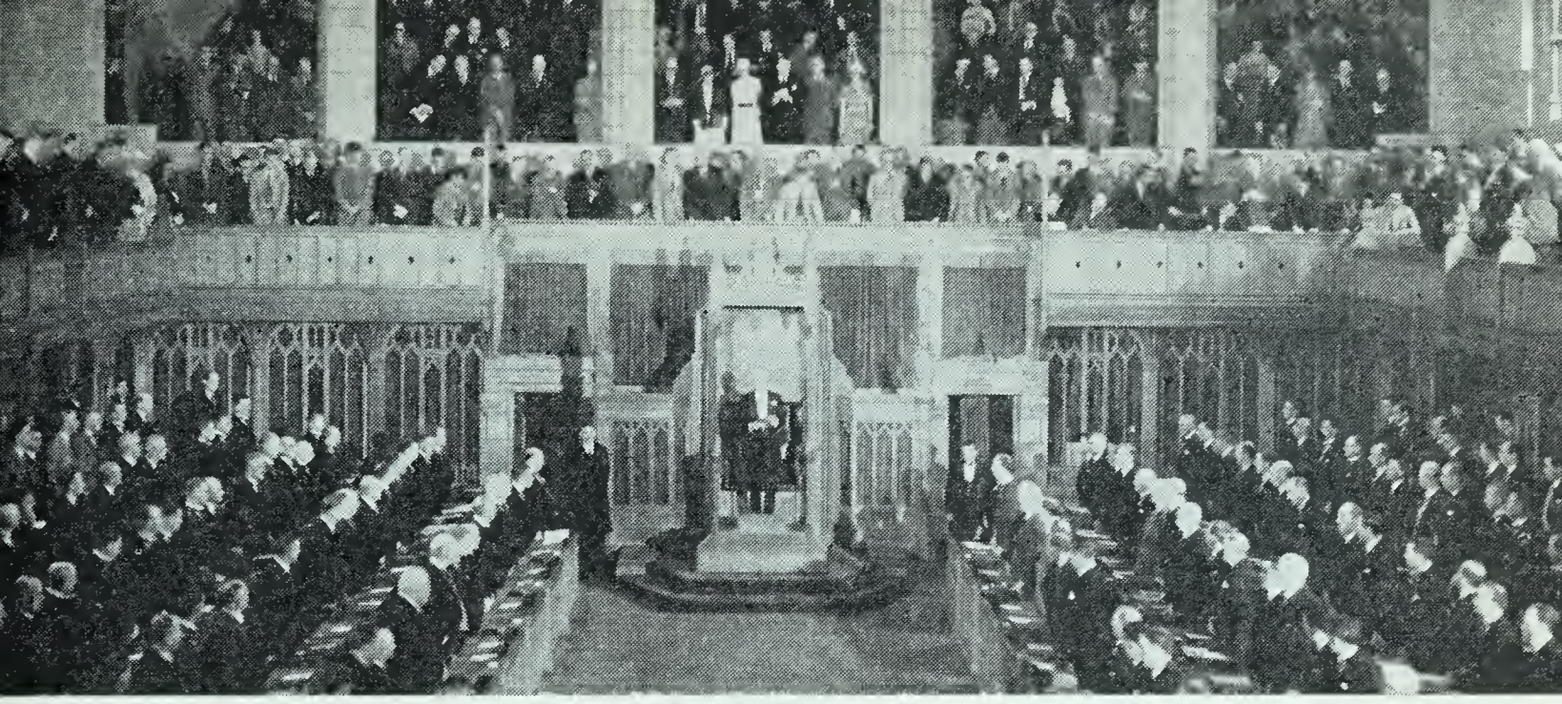
This way of thinking was strengthened by the Alaska Boundary dispute of the years 1899-1903. The gold rush into the Yukon raised the question of the exact boundary between Alaska, belonging to the United States, and the province of British Columbia. Since Canada did not conduct her own external affairs, the British government assumed charge of the discussions with the United States. Eventually, a commission was set up to decide the question, consisting, on the one side, of three American members, and on the other of one British and two Canadian members. In the final decisions the British member sided with the Americans to outvote the two Canadians. The result was a widespread sense of irritation in Canada, expressed against both the United States

and Great Britain, and there was a rising feeling that Canadians should look after their own external affairs. A few years later, in 1909, the Department of External Affairs was set up by the Canadian government. Although it had only a tiny staff for many years to come, it was a first step in Canada's separate conduct of its relations with other countries..

In the meantime, however, Canadians continued to be thoroughly conscious of their close association with Great Britain and the Empire. When the mother country began to be worried by the rapid rise of German naval power in the years before 1914, there was a strong desire that Canada should give some aid to increase the strength of the Royal Navy, above all to keep the vital North Atlantic ocean safe. Most English-speaking Canadians were prepared to make such a contribution, but the idea was opposed by many French Canadians. A small Canadian navy was begun, but there were also differences over naval policy between the Liberal and Conservative parties. The result was a prolonged, and sometimes bitter, controversy over the naval question in the years before the outbreak of the Great War in 1914. The incident showed that Canadians were finding themselves drawn into world affairs more than ever before, and that this had placed a serious strain on Canadian internal unity.

The outbreak of war in Europe in 1914 marked a great turning point for Canada. There were still greater strains on Canada's unity at home, for French and English came to disagree over the war policies that should be followed. Yet the Dominion's contributions to the war effort in men and supplies were so great that Canada could no longer be thought of merely as a colony. In 1917 the Imperial War Cabinet was established, in which Canada and the other Dominions were represented, and where they could help to work out a common war policy for the Empire. After the war Canada received further recognition of her new position, won on the battlefields of France. In 1919, Canada, along with the other Dominions, signed the Treaty of Versailles in her own right.

In this same year the League of Nations was established, and



National Film Board

THE IMPERIAL ECONOMIC CONFERENCE IN OTTAWA, 1932

Canada became one of its members. This was the clearest indication yet of Canada's new national status, for it meant that all the other members of the League were ready to recognize that she was now an adult member of the family of nations. Although continuing to be closely associated with Great Britain, Canada was beginning to speak and act for herself in world affairs. She was led to this new place in the world by a skilful and determined Prime Minister, Sir Robert Borden.

During the 1920's Canada's new role in external affairs continued to be recognized in various ways. For instance, under Prime Minister Mackenzie King, in 1923, a treaty negotiated between the United States and Canada relating to the halibut fisheries on the Pacific coast was signed for Canada by a Canadian representative. This was the first time that there had not been a British signature on a treaty involving Canada. A few years later Canada took the first steps in establishing her own diplomatic relations with other countries. As we shall see later in this unit, Canada now has a large diplomatic service which extends to nearly all the countries of the world.

Perhaps the most striking proof in these years of Canada's new place in the world came in the Balfour Report of 1926, made at the Imperial Conference of that year. The Report stated that the

members of the Commonwealth were "autonomous communities within the British empire, equal in status, in no way subordinate one to another in any aspect of their domestic or external affairs, though united by a common allegiance to the Crown, and freely associated as members of the British Commonwealth of Nations." In other and fewer words, Canada and the rest of the Dominions were independent nations, on a par with Great Britain. This declaration was followed by changes in practice and in laws, aimed at making the Dominions legally equal to the mother country in all their actions as nations.

The important act in this connection was the Statute of Westminster of 1931, by which the British Parliament gave up several remaining legal powers over the Dominions that it had previously been exercising. Some power over changing the Dominions' constitutions was still left to the British Parliament, but this would only be used at the request of a Dominion itself. The Commonwealth was now clearly a voluntary association of independent nations, a partnership of equals. And Canada had thus gained full nationhood.

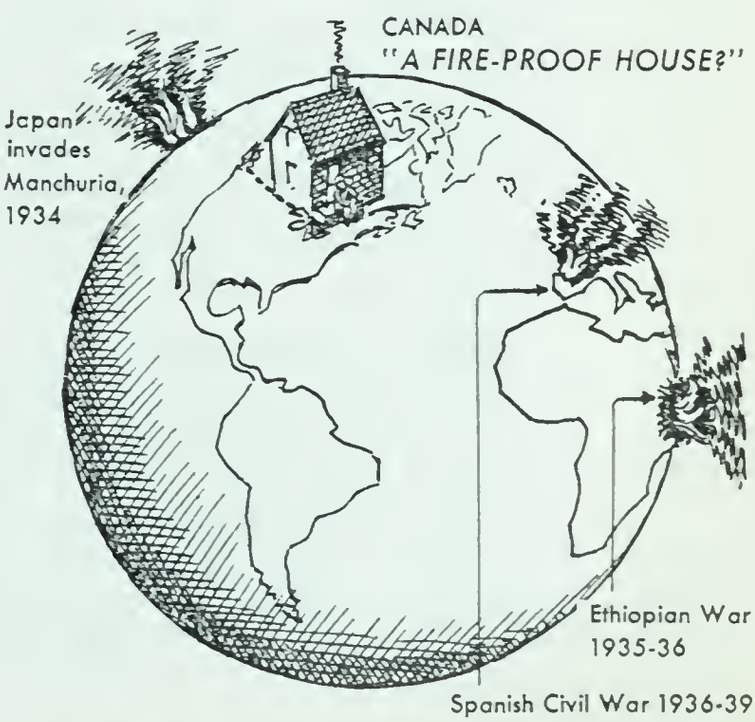
(b) Canada Shapes her own Foreign Policy. This is one side of Canada's rise to be a member of the world community of nations. But in what spirit did the Dominion approach her new role as a nation? What policy did she follow in world affairs? The answer seems to be that it was in a rather timid spirit, and so her foreign policy was a rather weak one. After the fearful war years, which had placed so great a strain on Canadian unity, there was a natural desire to avoid new responsibilities. Canada was anxious, as we have just seen, to be fully recognized as a nation, but there was an equally strong wish to stay out of any new world difficulties that might develop. Canada wanted to isolate herself, to cut herself off as far as possible from troubles that might arise in Europe. In fact, she was nearly as isolationist in the 1920's and 1930's as the United States was in these years.

We can see now that isolationism was probably an unwise policy, but at the time many Canadians favoured it as showing

that this country had a policy distinct from that of Great Britain. It was felt that Canada no longer needed to co-operate so closely with the mother country, since there was no real danger of war. The League of Nations, it was argued, could save the country from war, and Canada could safely concentrate on developing her legal rights of nationhood. She was a North American nation, as was the United States, and should stay out of trouble across the oceans.

Let us see how this isolationist policy worked out in practice. Its main point was that the Canadian government would give no promises in international affairs. If Great Britain became involved in a crisis, she could not count in advance on help from Canada. Instead, the Canadian Parliament would decide what help, if any, this country would give. Under Mackenzie King, who was Prime Minister for most of these years, this was called the policy of 'no commitments'. Canada took no responsibility for British policy in most parts of the world. For instance, in 1925, Great Britain agreed to guarantee the boundaries between France and Germany, but it was made clear that Canada was not involved in this guarantee.

Another aspect of this policy was that Canada wished to limit her responsibilities in the League of Nations. Whenever efforts were made to strengthen the League by asking member nations to agree to aid other members who might be attacked, Canada always avoided making any firm promises. Since Canadians, far away in North America, had no fear of attack themselves, they saw no reason for arrangements that would be all give and no take. One Canadian delegate in the 1920's said that Canada lived in a "fire-proof house, far from inflammable ma-



CANADA ISOLATES HERSELF
FROM FOREIGN AFFAIRS IN THE EARLY 'THIRTIES

terials. A vast ocean separates us from Europe." Thus Canada did not think she need rely on united League action, or collective security, for her own safety.

An outstanding example of Canada's lukewarm approach to the League came in 1935, after Ethiopia was attacked by Fascist Italy. When a Canadian spokesman proposed that the League members cut off supplies of oil and other key commodities to Italy, the Canadian government refused to back him up. It has been argued, with much truth, that a small country like Canada could not give a lead in such an important matter. Yet it would have been well if Canadians had understood more clearly that their country's fate was really tied up with that of other countries, however far away they seemed. We have to admit that in the tragic years leading up to the Second World War, Canadians were as short-sighted as other peoples. The Dominion was coming of age in world affairs, but the road to wisdom in this difficult realm would be a long one.

In the 1930's, as world affairs steadily worsened, leading to the outbreak of the Second World War in 1939, Canadian policy continued to be one of 'no commitments'. Canada took no part in the efforts made by the British and other governments to keep the peace with warlike Nazi Germany under the ruthless dictator, Adolph Hitler. When these efforts failed, when Hitler's Germany continued to attack her neighbours, and world war finally came, the Canadian Parliament was assembled to give its members the opportunity to vote on the question of entering the conflict. Thus, although Great Britain went to war on September 3, 1939, Canada's decision was not taken until her Parliament had met a week later.

And yet there was never any question about the outcome: the vote in Parliament was all but unanimous for joining Britain and France in the fight against Hitler. In fact, two years earlier Prime Minister King had secretly warned Hitler that Canada was certain to come to the aid of Britain in the event of war. Hence, by 1939, Canada had asserted her right to make her own vital decisions in



Courtesy Royal Canadian Air Force

CANADA'S AIR FORCE HELPS TO DEFEND BRITAIN
Canadian airmen repair a damaged Spitfire

world affairs, although before that time she had not yet really shaped a distinctive policy of her own.

Why then did Canada go to war in 1939? Her house was still relatively 'fire-proof', in the sense that German aggression was unlikely to reach Canadian shores. But who could be sure? It was better to fight in Europe than to wait until the threat came nearer, possibly to North America. There was also a deep feeling that, for all of Canada's new national rights, in the final emergency her place was 'at Britain's side' — to quote a phrase of Prime Minister King's. For generations Britain had helped Canada preserve a separate existence in North America; now Canada would demonstrate her loyalty to Britain and the Commonwealth. This feeling for the Commonwealth tie, therefore, strongly influenced Canada to decide to act in the great world crisis. Morover, Canada's declaration of war showed that although she was a North American country, she had a policy different from that of the United States, which remained neutral. Plainly Canada was steering her own way

in the Americas. When the United States entered the War late in 1941, followed later by several of the Latin American countries, Canadians could feel that they had given a lead to all the nations in the New World. In short, they really were beginning to shape a distinctive Canadian foreign policy, one which recognized that in time of grave world danger even a 'far away' North American nation could not stand safely on the sidelines, but must act to help save her friends and herself.

The Second World War did more than any other event since the First World War to increase Canada's international importance. When France fell in 1940, and Hitler was master of Europe, Canada and the other Dominions for over a year shared with Great Britain the honour of defending civilization from further Nazi conquest. Driven by necessity, Canada developed powerful armed forces that played an important part in the eventual victory. The Royal Canadian Navy gained fame on the harsh and lonely convoy routes of the North Atlantic, protecting merchant shipping from enemy submarines. The Royal Canadian Air Force took part in the ever-mounting bombing offensive against Germany. By the end of the war Canada had the third largest navy and the fourth largest air force among the Allied countries. Finally, the Canadian army shared in the offensives from Italy and Northwestern Europe that brought the war to an end. In the last months of the war a Canadian Army under a Canadian general took its place with the British and American armies. This was decisive recognition of Canada's importance to the mighty Allied coalition.

Canada's economic power grew even more rapidly than her military power during the Second World War. Not only were large quantities of food and of raw materials produced, as in the past, but with the rapid growth of industry Canadians began to make many things, such as aeroplanes, tanks and complex radio equipment which had never been built in this country before. The Industrial Revolution finally came to Canada in full degree. This industrialization, which helped to win the war, also helped to make Canada still more important in the postwar world.

During the latter stages of the struggle the Allied powers began to think seriously of ways of preserving the peace in future, after Germany and her allies were defeated. Many conferences were held to lay the basis for a new and stronger international organization to replace the League of Nations that had failed to prevent the Second World War. These meetings were largely confined to the Great Powers, but Canadian leaders were always kept informed, and because of Canada's importance, had ways of letting their views be known. They made clear that Canada would back a new world organization to the full: in other words, that now she was prepared to accept world responsibilities not only during a wartime emergency but as a permanent policy in peacetime as well.

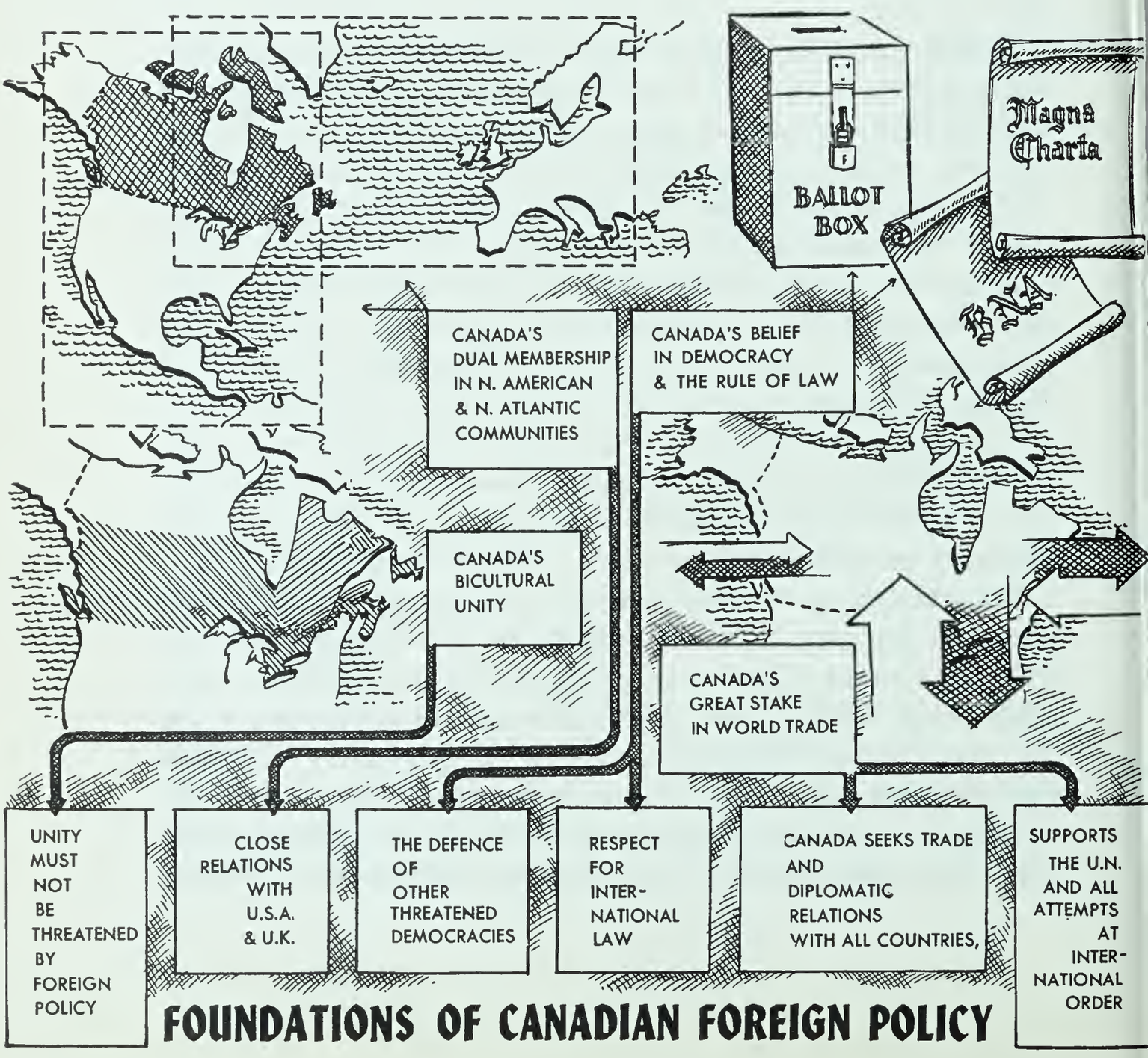
Finally, in 1945, a great world conference was held at San Francisco which resulted in the founding of the United Nations Organization. Canada and other smaller countries were fully represented at the meeting. Although the leading roles remained with the Great Powers, the Canadian delegates played a prominent part in the discussions. They had an important influence on several articles of the United Nations Charter, that set down the plan and functions of the new world security organization. And the fact that Canada took such an active share in organizing the United Nations showed that she would no longer try to limit her role in the world community, as she had in the League of Nations. Instead she was now ready to recognize commitments in world affairs, and so had developed a definite foreign policy, of which one great principle was willing support for a world security organization.

Accordingly, by 1945, we can say that Canada had fully come of age in the great family of nations, and had not only had her rights as a nation accepted by all the rest of the world, but stood ready to take on her duties as well. Hence we can now consider the part that Canada has played in the world community since that time, and that which she is taking in the present day. To see this, we should examine in particular the main lines of Canadian foreign policy, which are the rules that govern her actions in interna-

tional affairs, and also the development of the Canadian diplomatic service, which is the body of highly trained public servants whose task it is to carry out that policy in the world beyond our borders.

3. Canada Takes Part in the World Community

(a) The Main Lines of Canadian Foreign Policy. A country's foreign policy, which it follows in the world abroad, must naturally reflect the needs, views and problems of the nation at home; and so it is with Canada. Thus those



main points which we dicsussed in the last unit in examining the character of the twentieth-century Canadian nation assuredly do a great deal to shape our foreign policy. To recall them, they are, Canada's position as a North American and North Atlantic country closely linked both with the United States and Great Britain, her dependence on world trade, her special character as a bi-cultural nation that also has many ties with European peoples, and her belief in democracy, freedom and the rule of law. All these things might well be considered the basic foundations of Canadian foreign policy.

In fact, in 1947, the Canadian Secretary of State for External Affairs, then Mr. Louis St. Laurent, considered them in just that way when he set forth the principles governing Canada's actions in the world at large, in a speech entitled *The Foundations of Canadian Foreign Policy*. Here he spoke first of 'basic principles', which included such things as Canada's respect for law, in external affairs no less than internal — in the belief that lawlessness between nations leads to unprovoked attacks and war, as it had in the case of Nazi Germany, which had completely ignored treaties and agreements between nations. Another basic principle was Canada's belief in freedom, and along with this was the thought that a threat to the freedom of Britain, France and other western European countries, from where our own ideas of freedom and democracy had sprung, was a threat to Canada itself.

Still another principle was that any external policy followed by Canada should not endanger unity at home. In other words, Canadians must never forget that theirs is a bi-cultural country, and a policy that divides the French-speaking and English-speaking groups (which has happened in the stress of both world wars) is a dangerous policy indeed. And yet another principle was the fact that Canada, not being a Great Power, must fully support international organizations in their efforts to maintain peace, since she could not possibly look after her own security herself. Of course, the fact is, that in this age of aerial and atomic warfare, even the greatest powers cannot hope to stay secure, and so the best hope

for everybody lies in international co-operation, as Canada well knows.

These basic principles also lead to certain lines of policy for Canada, which only need to be summarized, since they have all been mentioned before. First, Canada strives to maintain a very close relationship with the United States; not only for the sake of security, to have this tremendously powerful neighbour as an ally, or because she trades so extensively with the United States, but also because they are both North American nations with a great deal in common in their way of life, their outlook and their belief in freedom. Working so closely with the United States involves Canada in endless day-to-day dealings and constant negotiations, but the frank yet friendly exchanges of views, and sometimes even agreements to disagree, have produced the most thorough-going practical partnership between two independent nations to be found in the world today. And both countries, too, are thoroughly committed to one another in the joint defence of North America.

Again, Canada maintains a similarly close relationship with Commonwealth countries and especially with Great Britain, because here also there are powerful common feelings and beliefs in freedom and law, while Canada regards the Commonwealth as a valued association that brings her in touch with many parts of the world, and makes her more than just a North American nation. In particular Canada's traditional tie across the North Atlantic with Britain balances to some degree the powerful pull southward to the United States, and allows her more independence in the world. It would be wrong to think, however, that Canada in any way tries to use one of these countries against the other. In fact, she strives to keep both of them in agreement, in the belief that Britain and the United States need one another and that Canada is no less bound up with them as a part of the North Atlantic Triangle.

Finally, Canada, as we have seen, gives full support to the United Nations and other organizations that have taken shape under it: in order to maintain world peace and security, to guard

freedom at home and abroad, to improve world standards of living, and to increase the flow of world trade which brings prosperity with it. Thus there are really three main aspects to Canada's foreign policy: our dealings with the United States, with Britain and the Commonwealth, and with the world at large, chiefly through the United Nations and its related organizations; though Canada also carries on direct relations with many countries through our diplomatic representatives abroad.

The United Nations is, of course, the main international political organization in the world today; Under it there may be regional organizations to protect peace and freedom in certain parts of the world, as in the North Atlantic Treaty Organization, of which Canada is an important member, or 'special problem' agencies such as the Atomic Energy Commission. But these various world political organizations all have as their chief concern the maintenance of general peace and security and Canada's part in this greatest of all world efforts today can hardly be separated from that of many other nations. Accordingly it is better at this point to move on to other sides of Canada's activities in the modern world community, and leave the details of the part she is playing in world security to a later unit (Unit Eleven). Yet, as we turn to discuss the Canadian diplomatic service, we should not forget that one of its chief employments is at the United Nations and in its related bodies, in the endless search of Canada and a host of other countries for some means to keep the peace, and to win security and well-being for peoples everywhere.



(b) The Canadian Diplomatic Service. The usual picture of a diplomat is probably familiar to all of us. He is tall, thin, carefully dressed, usually in evening clothes or morning coat, and has suave and charming manners. He travels to strange and far-off

places, where he is always perfectly familiar with the language of the natives. Right and wrong mean nothing to him, since his sole task is to benefit his own country by tricking other countries. He will go to any lengths to gain his ends. His life is one of constant intrigue and mystery; on its fringes are sinister spies and beautiful but dangerous women — or so the movies tell us. Doubtless many of us have been attracted by the exciting life of the diplomat!

It would not be true to say that the above description is entirely wrong, but it does exaggerate the glamorous side. The average diplomat is likely to be a well-trained and well-educated person, who spends much of his time on rather dull and technical but highly important matters. He is sent to the capital city of a foreign country to look after the thousand and one matters, great and small, that come up between the two countries involved. He must help and advise citizens of his own country who may be travelling in the country where he is stationed. He must relay messages between the two governments. One of his most important tasks is to gather information about all aspects of the foreign country to send back to his own country. A successful foreign policy depends heavily upon the information sent in from foreign service officers abroad. Thus the good diplomat is accurate, hard-working and open-minded, always reading, listening and observing. His own country's safety and welfare may depend upon how well he does his job.

Canada now exchanges diplomatic representatives with the governments of nearly all the large and many of the small countries throughout the world. If we were to travel in any of these countries we would find Canadian representatives ready to help us with problems that might arise. Yet it is only in recent years that we would have found foreign service officers from Canada in so many countries. As Canada's world importance has grown, so has her representation abroad. There has of course been a similar growth of the number of representatives sent to Ottawa from foreign countries.

At the beginning of this century, as we noted earlier in this

unit, Canada had no diplomatic service, and there was no Department of External Affairs to conduct Canada's relations with other countries. These relations were conducted through British diplomatic offices. Canada had maintained a High Commissioner in London since 1880, and a Commissioner-General in France since 1882, but neither of these offices was of diplomatic rank; that is, they did not represent Canada as a nation in a foreign country, but were merely useful business offices. Individual departments of the government sent representatives abroad as trade commissioners and emigration agents, but again these were not diplomatic officials. British affairs in Canada were still in the hands of the Governor-General. And although the Department of External Affairs had been established in 1909, by 1914 it contained only two officers.

With Canada's new international position achieved as a result of the First World War, the Department began to expand, though its top position, the Secretary of State for External Affairs, was still only a part-time job, since it was always held by the Prime Minister. In fact, it was not until 1947 that the office of Secretary of State for External Affairs was separated from that of the Prime Minister. The 1920's saw the first steps in the establishment of a Canadian diplomatic service abroad. It was natural, in view of Canada's close relations with the United States, that the first Canadian Minister should be sent to Washington. There in 1927, Vincent Massey became Canada's first Minister to a foreign country. (Later, in 1952, Mr. Massey became Canada's first native-born Governor-General.) In 1928 the first Canadian legation was opened in Europe, when a Minister was sent to Paris, and in the following year the first Canadian legation was opened in Asia with the despatch of a Minister to Tokyo.

Canada's relations with Britain also underwent an important change at this time. This was largely because of the Balfour Report of 1926, which stated that the members of the Commonwealth were all equal to one another. One by-product of this declaration was a change in the role of the Governor-General. He ceased to

be representative of a 'superior' British government in the Dominions, and came simply to represent the Crown, as the King or Queen would do in Britain. And so the British government now needed another representative to look after its interests in each Dominion. As a result British High Commissioners were named, and the first was sent to Ottawa in 1928. Thus Canada and Great Britain now exchanged High Commissioners as equals, and each of them now had diplomatic rank.

The coming of the Great Depression in the 1930's stopped further growth of Canada's diplomatic service for a time, because rigid economy was necessary in government. The next offices abroad were not established until 1939, when Ministers were sent to Belgium and the Netherlands. In that same year, however, the Second World War broke out, and brought with it new international responsibilities for Canada. It was now decided to send High Commissioners to other Commonwealth countries, to Australia, New Zealand, South Africa and Ireland. Since Ireland later left the Commonwealth, Canada now sends an ambassador to that country.

During the war years Canada also opened its first diplomatic missions in Latin America, when Ministers were sent to Argentina,



EXPANSION OF CANADA'S DIPLOMATIC MISSIONS ABROAD
1880-1950

1880 - High Commissioner in Landan
1909-Dept. of External Affairs under Prime Minister
(by 1914 only twa officers)
1927 - Canadian Minister to Washingtan
1928 - Canadian Minister to Paris
British High Commissianer to Ottawa
1939 - Ministers ta Belgium & Netherlands
High Commissianers ta Australia, New Zealanc
Union af Sauth Africa, and Eire
World War II - Ministers to Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Cuba,
1947 - High Commissioners to India & Pakistan

Brazil, Chile, Cuba, Mexico and Peru. A further sign of the growth of Canada's foreign relations came in 1943, when the Canadian legation at Washington was raised to the rank of an embassy, and since that time most Canadian missions abroad have become embassies. A legation is headed by a minister, while the chief officer of an embassy is an ambassador, and the latter is the higher rank. After 1945, representation abroad continued to increase. In particular, High Commissioners were sent to India and Pakistan in 1947.

The growing number of legations and embassies do not fully cover the list of Canada's diplomatic representatives abroad. Delegates to the meetings of the United Nations Assembly have diplomatic rank, as have delegates to the United Nations Security Council. (Canada was a member of this Council from 1947 to 1949.) Also, Canada sent diplomatic agents to Japan and Germany, after those countries were defeated in the last war, although formal diplomatic relations did not exist. When the Japanese peace treaty was finally signed in 1951, Ottawa and Tokyo resumed full relations, and exchanged ambassadors. Similarly, these have been exchanged between Canada and West Germany. Canada also has an ambassador at the North Atlantic Treaty Organization headquarters in Paris.

Thus we see that Canada now has a far-reaching diplomatic service abroad. But the Canadian government is also represented by many other kinds of officials in foreign countries. In addition to embassies, legations, and special missions, the Department of External Affairs controls a large number of consulates-general and consulates, which look after a wide variety of day-to-day matters between citizens of foreign countries on the one hand and Canada and Canadian citizens on the other. The Department of Trade and Commerce sends out trade commissioners to many parts of the world, whose duty it is to encourage and increase Canada's foreign trade. Technical experts working with the U.N. or the Colombo Plan may also be regarded as official representatives of the Canadian government. Finally, and largest of all in numbers,

are the thousands of soldiers, sailors and airmen who are stationed abroad, fulfilling Canada's commitments under the United Nations or the North Atlantic Treaty Organization. This list is still not complete, but it is enough to show that large numbers of well-trained Canadians are constantly at work beyond Canada's borders to promote this country's security and prosperity and to further the outside interests and activities of Canadian citizens.

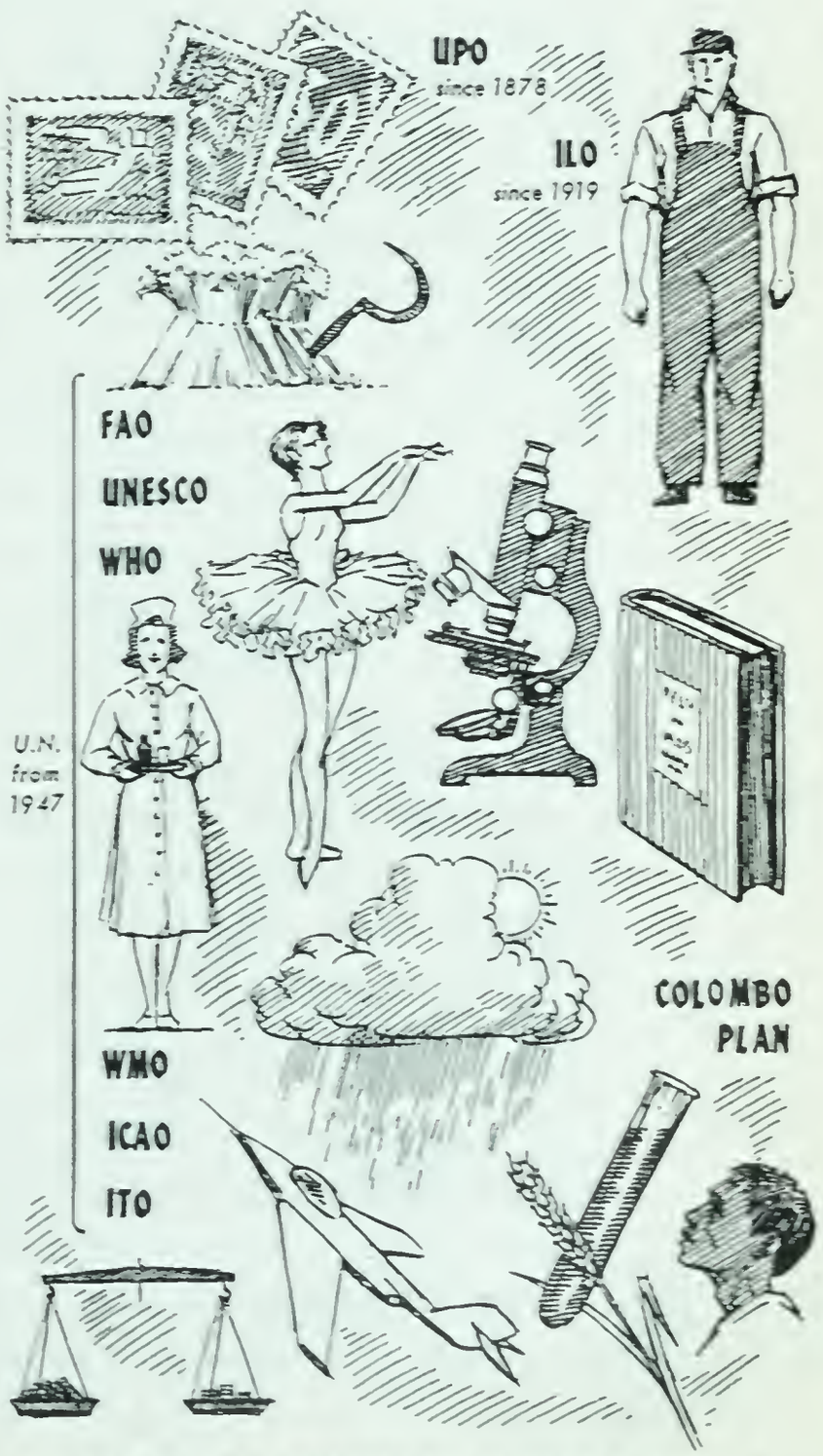
4. Canada's Share in Many World Activities

(a) Special International Organizations. We have just seen that the Canadian government has a wide variety of official contacts with other countries that are political, economic or military in nature. But there are also a large number of contacts in other fields that are not directly related to the big questions of foreign policy and relations between nations. These activities seldom get into the headlines, yet they are important since they are usually genuine proof of co-operation between peoples. In addition, there are many international activities carried on by private citizens and organizations that have nothing to do with government. Such activities are of the highest importance and deserve to be understood. Relations between governments must always be somewhat stiff and formal, but there can and should be much more give and take when private citizens of different countries get together. Many people believe that the main hope of real international understanding lies in a vast increase of non-governmental and non-political associations that cut across national boundary lines.

First, let us look at non-political activities of an international nature in which the government is still involved. These activities are now linked together under the United Nations Organization. Within the United Nations there are distinct bodies called 'Specialized Agencies', which deal with various world problems under the supervision of the Economic and Social Council. Canada has a perfect record of joining these specialized agencies and of always

co-operating to the full in their work. Indeed, one of the best opportunities available to the smaller countries in the United Nations lies in these bodies, for where non-political activities are concerned the Great Powers do not always overshadow their smaller neighbours. Past experience has shown that some of the most constructive proposals may come from small countries.

Of the specialized agencies perhaps the most interesting is the Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, commonly called UNESCO. This organization tries to increase international understanding, to encourage the spread of education, and to ensure that certain basic 'human rights' are extended to peoples in all countries. Obviously the more advanced and prosperous nations such as Canada have much to offer in furthering such work. Among the other agencies are the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), the World Health Organization (WHO), the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO), the World Meteorological Organization (WMO), and the International Trade Organization (ITO). In these and other U.N. agencies Canadian delegates have all participated, and in some of them have reached leading positions.



Two other agences, now associated with the U.N. but which existed long before the U.N. was established, deserve special mention. The first of these is the Universal Postal Union, which was set up in 1875. This Union, which arranges common regulations for the exchange of mail among all the countries of the world, can claim to be one of the oldest and most successful of all international organizations. Canada has been a member of the Union since 1878. The other body is the International Labour Organization (ILO) which was established in 1919 to improve working conditions in all countries. Canada's interest in the work of the ILO grew with the years, and when the outbreak of the Second World War forced it to move its headquarters, the organization found a home in Montreal, although it later returned to its permanent headquarters in Geneva, Switzerland.

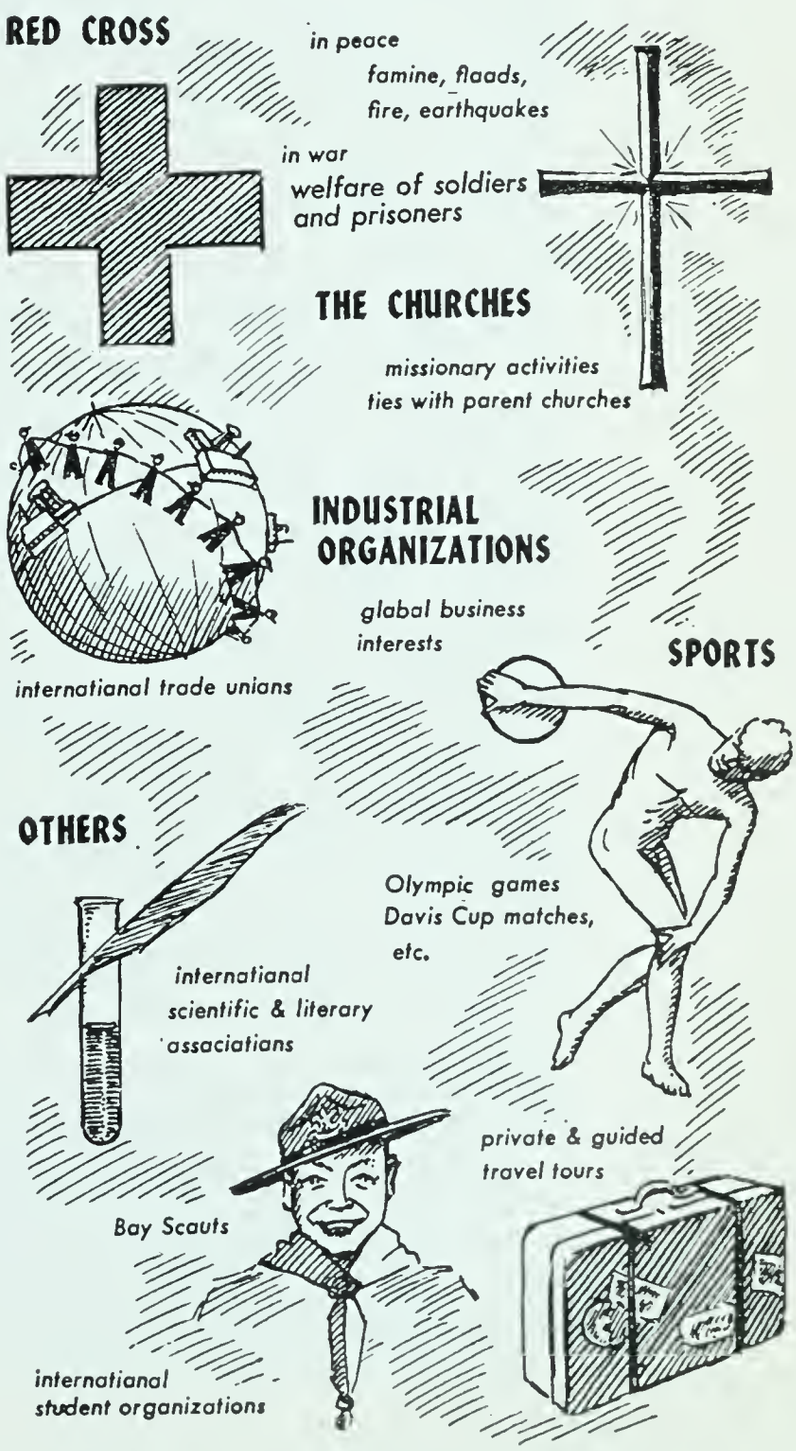
The Canadian government's non-political international activities are not confined to the U.N. Within the Commonwealth of Nations, which may also be thought of as an international organization, Canada takes part in the Colombo Plan, whereby the advanced nations of the Commonwealth work to assist the economic development of the countries of south and southeast Asia. The government at Ottawa has annually voted money in order that Canadian scientific skill may be of assistance to these countries, and the Plan has been a splendid example of practical international co-operation.

(b) The Private Citizen and World-Wide Bodies. Now let us turn to see how private citizens and organizations take part in international activities. Here the list is almost endless, and we can only suggest a few of the ways in which Canadians co-operate with people of similar interests in other countries. In some instances, separate Canadian organizations exist which are connected with similar bodies in other countries, while in other instances individual Canadian citizens belong to international societies and associations.

Everyone has heard of the Red Cross. It exists in nearly every country to relieve suffering in time of flood, famine, fire or other

disaster, to see to the well-being of soldiers and prisoners of war in wartime, and to carry out many other noble tasks besides. Each country has its own separate national organization, largely maintained by private volunteers, but each is associated with the International Red Cross, the headquarters of which are in Switzerland. The Canadian Red Cross thus regularly sends representatives to the international meetings where common problems and policies are discussed, and we might note that the International Red Cross Conference of 1952 was held in Toronto. In another field of activity, the same arrangement applies to Chambers of Commerce. In each country business men gather in local and national Chambers of Commerce, but periodically the world organization meets, where delegates from all over the world may exchange views on problems of trade and business.

Religion almost everywhere cuts across national boundary lines. Most religious denominations have followers in a number of countries. It is therefore natural that Canadian church members attend religious meetings or conferences with their fellow believers from many other nations. There are, for instance, the pilgrimages to Rome, that bring Canadian Roman Catholics together with others of their faith from many lands, or the meetings of the Protes-



CANADA'S WORLD CONTACTS II
THE PRIVATE CITIZEN'S INTERNATIONAL CONTACTS

tant World Council of Churches. Churches also engage in missionary activities, which lead to an interest in many far-flung countries. Canadian churches have missions that extend from the Arctic northland to Peru, and from West Africa to Japan. Through the exchange of missionaries, ministers and priests from one country to another the Church — quite aside from all its other work — also helps to spread man's knowledge of his fellows among the peoples of the earth, and to remind all of them that truly they are one.

On another plane, the organization of modern industry and labour has several international features. Many firms in other countries, particularly in the United States but also in Great Britain and Europe, have established branch offices or factories in Canada. Probably we can all think of the names of several of these companies. Some of them have plants all around the world. On the other hand, a number of Canadian concerns, notably banks and insurance companies, have extended their operations to other countries. Thus the everyday business of making a living has an international flavour for many Canadians. This is equally true in the field of trade union organization in Canada, although here direct connections exist only with union organizations in the United States. Nevertheless Canadian unions follow closely the world trade union movement, and send delegates to assemblies attended by union leaders from all the free countries of the world.

Sport is another field that brings many Canadians into contact — sometimes quite literally — with people from other countries. Since the modern Olympic Games were started in 1896, Canadian athletes have competed with contestants from all parts of the world. So far the Olympics have not been held in Canada, but this country has played host to the British Empire Games. Each year Canada enters a team in the international tennis matches for the Davis Cup, although so far her success has not been striking. Many other examples of international athletic contests might be mentioned.

The list of international gatherings in which Canadians take part might be extended almost indefinitely. It could include scientific and literary associations, in which people of similar interests

come together from all parts of the world. It could note international student associations, for young people are often engaged quite as much as their elders in world activities. Another example of this sort of activity among young people would be found in the Boy Scouts of Canada, who regularly send representatives to gatherings with Boy Scouts from many lands. Finally, we should not forget the importance of travel. Thousands of Canadians annually visit foreign countries for recreation, while equally large numbers of tourists come to Canada from other countries. Although the bulk of this exchange is between Canada and the United States, it is by no means limited to these two countries. Canadians also go to Britain and western Europe in particular.

It is clear, then, that Canada's contacts with other countries are not solely in the realms of foreign policy and trade, and that they are by no means confined to official relations among governments. Both the government and the people find themselves increasingly drawn into international activities in a wide variety of ways.

(c) Our Duty of World Knowledge. Canadians sometimes complain that people in other lands are remarkably ignorant of their country. Indeed, several years ago a Canadian journalist wrote a book about his homeland entitled *The Unknown Country*. There is still some justice in this complaint, since outsiders sometimes seem to know little about Canada except that it is supposed to be terribly cold here in the winter. Undoubtedly one reason for this limited knowledge is that Canada has not been a troublesome country. We do not have violent revolutions, and we do not invade other people's lands. A law-abiding nation, like a law-abiding person, does not get into the headlines very often, and may perhaps be taken for granted.

Nevertheless, it would no longer be true to describe Canada as an unknown country. The part played by Canadians in the Second World War, the tremendous growth of their economic power in recent years, and their contributions to international organizations, have all vastly increased Canada's impact on the world scene. In fact, it is probable that Canadians who have not been abroad do

not realize how much interest there is in their country in the world at large. A dramatic sign of the new interest in Canada was the fact that over a million people from other countries came to live here in the decade following the end of the Second World War. Moreover, Canadians who travel abroad now find themselves answering many questions about their homeland. If you plan to travel, it is wise to be well informed about Canada! Canadian travellers also find that their country and their countrymen are well liked and respected, and thus they have a high standard to maintain.

In fact, all of us have this high standard to maintain. We can do so only by keeping ourselves well informed about world affairs, and by developing a sympathetic and generous attitude towards other peoples and countries. We must remember that although Canada is not a Great Power, neither is she a small one. The tasks of preserving world peace and easing tensions among nations place heavy responsibilities upon Canadians, responsibilities which cannot be avoided without putting our own country in peril. World knowledge is a duty. We must all look abroad, whether we can travel there or not, and strive to understand the lives, views and problems of other peoples, elsewhere in the world. And that is what we shall do in the next section of this book, as Canada, a full-grown member of the world community, looks abroad to her neighbours across the oceans of the globe.

Learn by Doing

1. Have committees report on the following factors that increase Canada's importance: (1, b)
   (a) natural resources
   (b) exports
   (c) scientific contributions
   (d) political ties
   (e) geographic position
2. Conduct a class discussion on Laurier's views that the Empire should be a loose association rather than a tightly knit organization. (2, a)
3. Have committees search out and present material to the class on each of the following: (2, a)
   (a) The Alaska Boundary Dispute, 1899-1903
   (b) The Halibut Fisheries Treaty with the United States, 1923.
   (c) The Balfour Report, 1926.
   (d) The Statute of Westminster, 1931.
4. Have a class discussion on Mackenzie King's policy of 'no commitments' during the 1920's and 1930's. (2,b)
5. Have pupils obtain information on one of the following, and then report to the class: (a) UNESCO; (b) F.A.O.; (c) W.H.O. (4, a)
6. Read the section "The Private Citizen and World-Wide Bodies". Have a class discussion of the importance of the work of various private citizens and organizations in promoting international understanding. (4, b)

Facts to Know

1. What factors help to make Canada 'great' in world affairs? (1, a and b)
2. (a) Describe Canada's position in world affairs in 1900.
   (b) In what ways might this prove beneficial and harmful to Canada? (2,a)
3. What was the significance of setting up a Department of External Affairs in 1909? (2, a)

4. In a sentence or two, outline the way in which Canada advanced toward nationhood in the following years: (a) 1903; (b) 1919, (c) 1923; (d) 1926; (e) 1931. (2, a)

5. In what ways did the Second World War help to increase Canada's world importance. (2, b)

6. (a) What factors or basic principles help to shape Canada's foreign policy?
   (b) Why does Canada try to maintain a close relationship with the United States? (3, a)

7. (a) What are the main duties of Canadian diplomats abroad?
   (b) Name Canada's Minister of External Affairs.
   (c) List some of the important countries where Canada has embassies or legations. (3, b)

8. In what way did the duties of the Governor-General change after the Balfour Report of 1926? (3, b)

9. Describe the work of: (a) The Universal Postal Service; (b) The International Labour Organization. (4, a)

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UNIT SIX

CANADA LOOKS ACROSS THE ATLANTIC AT EUROPE

1. *Close Contacts across the Atlantic*
2. *The Varied Realm of Europe*
3. *The Achievements of Europe's Civilization*
4. *Europe Today*

1. Close Contacts across the Atlantic

How long ago man first looked and travelled across the North Atlantic waters between Europe and America will probably never be known. Prehistoric peoples, as we have said, seem to have entered North America from Asia. But could any groups have reached here from Europe? — a tantalizing question. At any rate, we do know that nearly 1000 years ago the Norsemen, those hardy 'Viking' sea rovers from Scandinavia, sailed across the North Atlantic. They had already established themselves in Iceland, and about 980 they made settlements in Greenland. And some of them went on to reach the coast of North America. In the year 1000 Leif, the son of Eric the Red, was blown off his course in returning from Norway to Greenland.

"For a long time," so the old Norse saga tells us, "he was tossed about upon the ocean, and came upon lands of which he had previously had no knowledge. There were self-sown wheat fields and vines growing there." Wineland, the Good, he called it and it may well have been part of the Canadian Atlantic seaboard. In this way, then, Canada probably first came into contact with Europe.

Our first sure glimpses of contacts between Canada and Europe come a good deal later, however, with the voyages of John Cabot and Jacques Cartier. Cabot, sailing in England's service in 1498, discovered Newfoundland's now famous fishing banks. "That sea", he asserted "is covered with fishes." The wealth of these fishing grounds first led Europeans in numbers to waters off the Canadian coast and even today their fishermen continue to come. And nearly forty years after Cabot the French explorer Cartier wrote with delight of the St. Lawrence as he saw it for the first time in 1535. "Along both shores", he said, "we had sight of the finest, most beautiful land it was possible to see." Thus Europe had discovered the great Canadian gateway to the continent, a waterway that would link even regions far inland with the open ocean. And European settlement spread up the St. Lawrence, and along Canada's eastern shores where a sturdy sea-faring population came to thrive on the Atlantic trade and fisheries.

Today the North Atlantic has become the world's busiest ocean highway. Millions of people have crossed its stormy waters, and many of them have done so seeking new homes for themselves and their children. By that route, as we saw in Unit Four, Canada has received her people, not only from France and Britain but from every country of Europe. From Europe also, and most of all from France and Britain, have come our languages, religions, ideas of government, music, arts, much of our science, and all sorts of things in our daily life. Although we have changed and added to these things until they are now Cana-

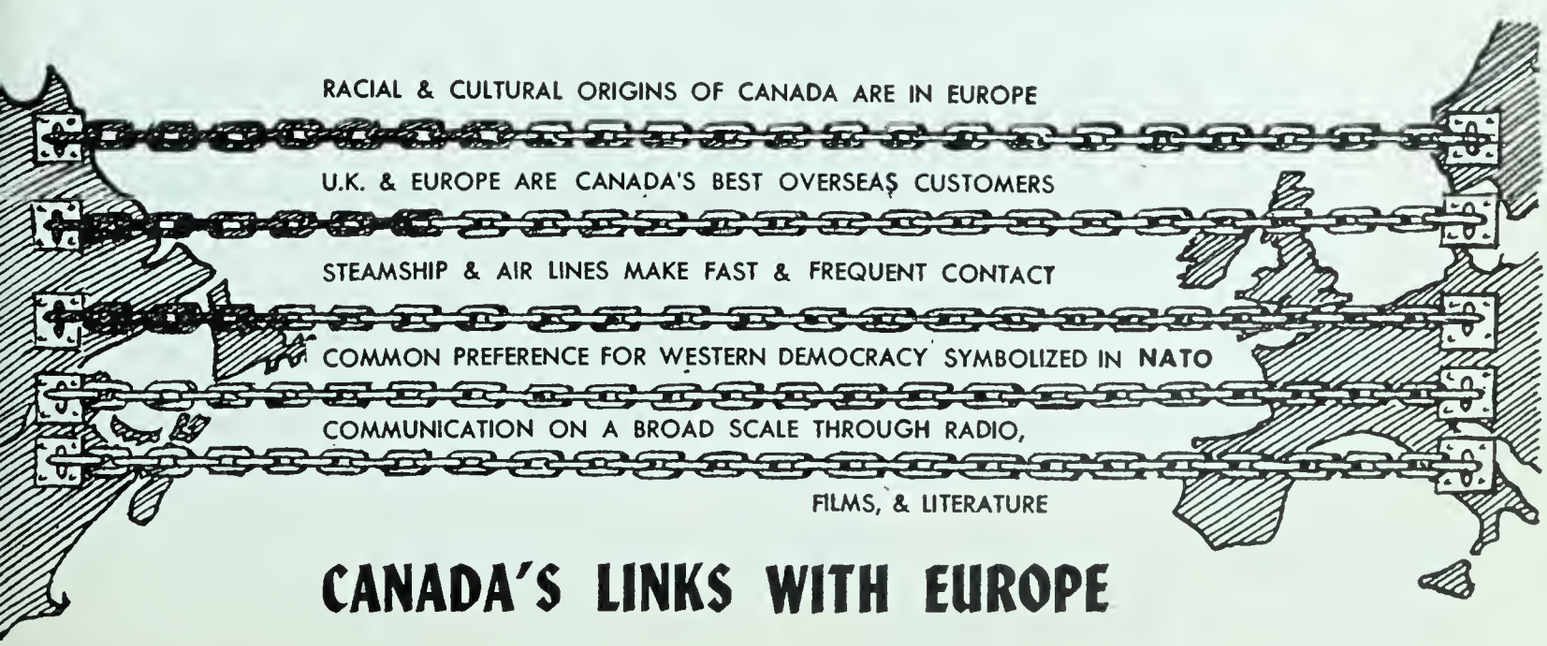


dian, we are still a part of European civilization, as indeed is every country of the Americas. After centuries of such contacts, it is no wonder that Canadians look over the Atlantic to Europe with close interest. It would be strange if they did not.

Canadians, moreover, are not just linked to Europe because of their origins or because they have inherited European culture. Most of our overseas trade is carried on with western European lands, and with Britain in particular. People as well as goods are still constantly moving back and forth across the Atlantic. Government officials journey to conferences — to Ottawa or Montreal, to Paris or Geneva, and especially to London, still the chief centre of the world Commonwealth. Business men have important interests on either side of the ocean. Immigrants continue to move to this country. And yearly a stream of Canadian tourists crosses the Atlantic to visit the lands of their ancestors.

Trans-Canada Airways accordingly maintains a busy Atlantic service. Then there are great steamship lines like the Canadian Pacific or the Cunard (which began in Nova Scotia) that carry a heavy flow of traffic over the ocean — and it steadily grows heavier. Ideas too cross easily from one side to the other. We hear B.B.C. broadcasts in Canada, while the C.B.C.'s international service beams the bulk of its programmes to Europe from Sackville, New Brunswick. British and European films, books and magazines have a wide distribution in this country.

Still further, because we have so much in common with Europe, we tend to think alike, and to share common attitudes on world



CANADA'S LINKS WITH EUROPE

problems. Certainly Britain and most western European countries are as devoted as we are to democracy, peace and international law; and in general, also, they are countries with high standards of living and advanced industrial development. As a result, Canada and the United States are far more like Europe than like Asia, Africa, or even Latin America, in their world outlook. It is natural, therefore, that we should stand together in trying to improve living conditions in less advanced parts of the globe, in meeting the threat of communism, and in working for world security. Thus it is that Canada and the United States have bound themselves closely with the nations of western Europe in the North Atlantic Treaty Organization to defend our common interests and promote the cause of world peace. For in the biggest things we are one, part of a great community that has grown up together on both sides of the North Atlantic 'lake'. North America and Europe, then, must be deeply interested in one another.

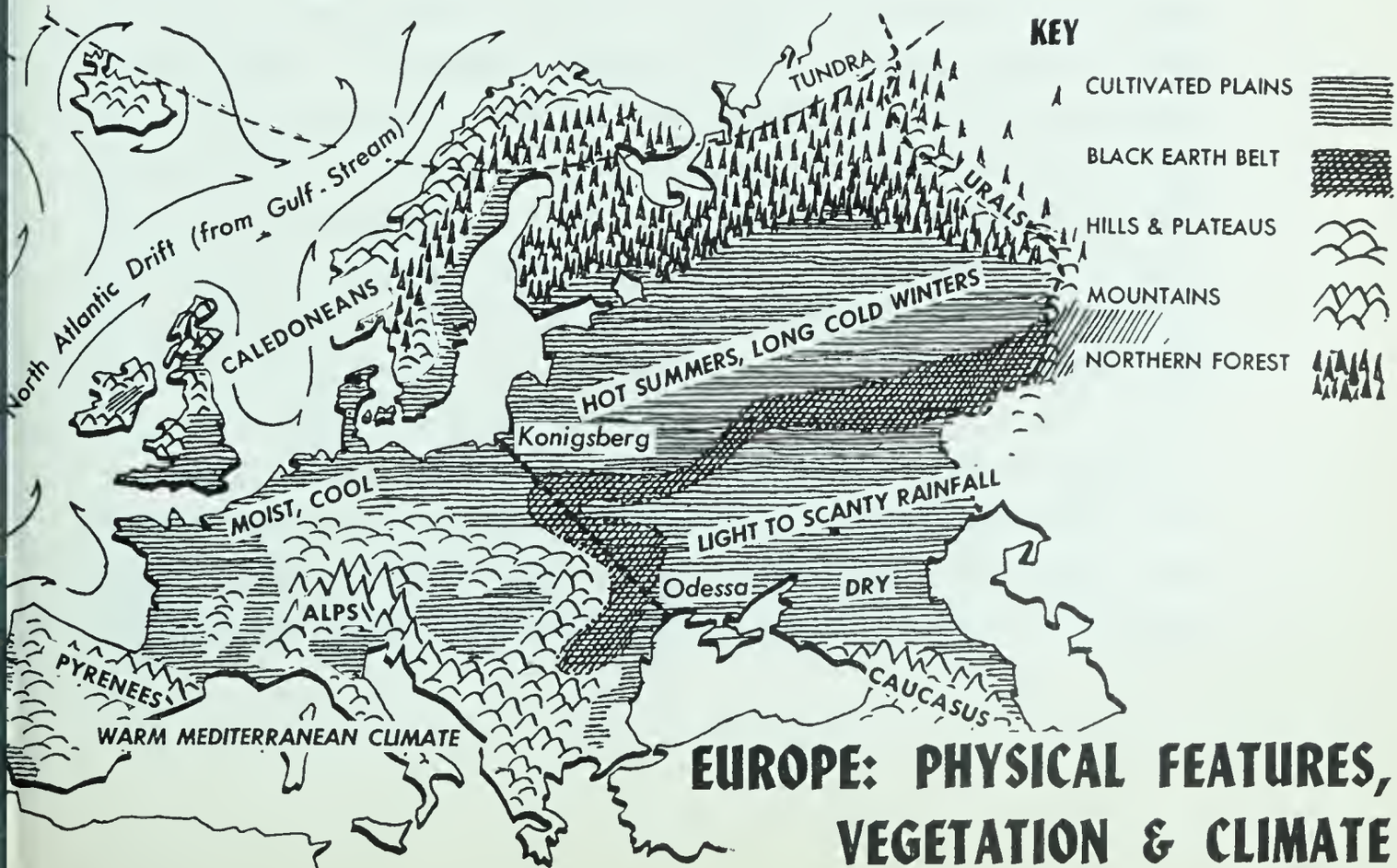
But what is Europe, and who are the Europeans? At first sight the answers to these questions seem easy. Europe is, of course, a continent, and the Europeans are the people who live there. That does not take us very far, however, and to find the really interesting answers to such questions, we shall have to look more closely at this remarkable continent with its varied lands, its many nations and languages, and its centuries of colourful history and wonderful civilization.

2. The Varied Realm of Europe

(a) Lands of Eastern and Western Europe. Although Europe is called a continent, it is also like a great peninsula, since it is part of that enormous Eurasian land mass which stretches for roughly 8,000 miles, all the way from France and Spain in the west to the Pacific Ocean in the far east. Indeed if Europe and Asia did not have such different peoples and histor-

ies, they might almost be thought of as one continent. The Ural Mountains, that are generally considered as a dividing line, are not much of a barrier between the two. They are very old mountains, worn down through the ages, and men have moved back and forth across them for thousands of years, sometimes in savage invasions from the east, like those of the Huns or the Mongols.

European Russia has, therefore, for centuries been a vast borderland between Asia and the countries of the West, and Europe is thus divided into two parts: Russia and Western Europe. Between these also, there is no sharp geographic boundary line. On a map showing the physical features of Europe you will see, for example, that through northern Germany, the Netherlands and even central France there is a quite flat plain which stretches also to the east for hundreds of miles through Poland and on into the wide plains of Russia. The fact that there is no clear boundary between Eastern and Western Europe has been important for centuries, and is very important today, as we shall learn. But roughly a line of division may be drawn from, say, Odessa on the Black Sea to Konigsberg on the Baltic; for in general, the geography of European Russia on the one side has different features from that of Western Europe on the other.



EUROPE: PHYSICAL FEATURES, VEGETATION & CLIMATE

Russia's great plain stretches northward from the Black Sea to the Arctic for over 1,500 miles and just as far, east and west, from the Baltic to the Urals. Like the Canadian prairie it is a land of long cold winters, hot summers and light rainfall. Like Canada also, it has several belts of vegetation: in the Arctic, a tundra region with mosses, lichens and stunted shrubs; further south an immense forest region of conifers and other northern trees; and still further south, vast grassy plains or steppes suitable for grazing and agriculture. Unlike Canada, however, Russia has areas in the farthest south around the Black Sea which can grow olives, lemons, figs, and other plants only suited to a warm climate similar to that of Italy. Russia's best agricultural region is the rich belt of black earth stretching eastward from Romania for hundreds of miles through the Ukraine. This enormous Russian 'bread-basket', like the plains of North America, is one of the world's greatest producers of grains and food-stuffs. With its ancient capital, Kiev, the Ukraine had a long proud history of its own, and the name of its famous Cossack horsemen is known everywhere.

Russia, in addition to agriculture, has very great natural resources in her huge forest areas, her water power, her minerals and oil. For these last, the regions of the Urals and the rugged Caucasus are specially important. Copper, chromium, manganese, iron and other minerals are found here in great abundance, while the oil wells around Baku on the Caspian Sea (five times the size of Lake Superior) are among the most important in the world. The coal fields of the Donetz Basin and the Urals supply power to drive industries, as does the giant hydro-electric dam system on the Dnieper River. In this century big industrial centres have emerged in all these regions: like Magnitogorsk in the Urals, Stalingrad and Moscow on the Volga, and Dniepropetrovsk on the Dnieper.

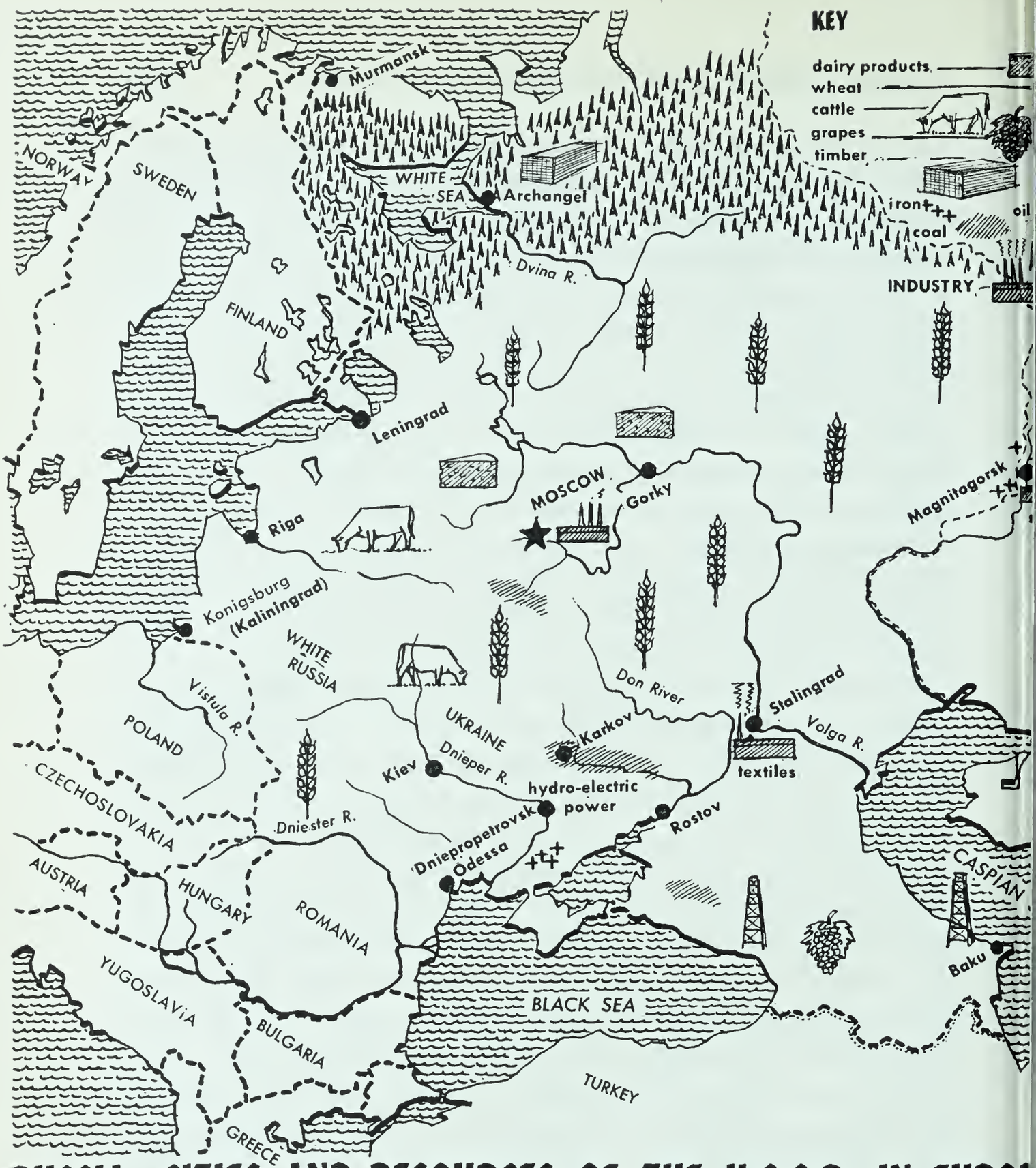
Transportation in such a large country is bound to be important, and in this respect the rivers have long played a great part — as we may well imagine from the famous Volga Boat Song. Railways and airways, have, of course, been added, but the large river systems of

the Don, Dnieper, Volga and others have been connected by canals so that it is possible to pass from the Caspian to the Black Sea, the Baltic or even to the Arctic. These inland waterways have, of course, the disadvantage of being frozen over in winter.

Russia's greatest lack in transportation is access to the world's ocean highways. From ports like Odessa on the Black Sea or Riga on the Baltic, it is a long way to the open ocean, through waterways controlled by other countries. The port of Murmansk on the Arctic is open the year round, but it and Archangel, which is frozen in winter, are far from main centres of Russian population, such as the great cities of Leningrad and Moscow. In spite of these disadvantages Russia's trade with the world in recent years has been much more hindered by political difficulties than by geography, since her communist rulers have shown little desire to carry on business with non-communist lands.

When we turn to the geography of Western Europe we immediately see contrasts with that of Russia. One is the deeply indented sea coast of over 40,000 miles, which is tremendously long for the size of the land. On the south stretches the Mediterranean, about 1,700 miles in a straight line from Gibraltar to Turkey, but far longer in its coast line, because of seas like the Adriatic and Aegean and peninsulas like Italy, Greece and hundreds of smaller ones. Spain and Portugal together are a great peninsula, the Iberian, which faces on both the Mediterranean and the Atlantic Ocean. The Atlantic coast is very irregular, and then in the north lies the Baltic Sea, about 1,000 miles long and with about 5,000 miles of coast line. Norway and Sweden, Finland and Denmark are all peninsulas. Besides this there are islands: the British Isles, Iceland, and hundreds of smaller ones — some of them important, like Crete, Sicily, Sardinia, Corsica and Malta.

Western Europe has hundreds of harbours, many of which are now world famous ports. Some of them lie well inland, like Hamburg, Antwerp and London. There are also many navigable rivers which carry a great amount of traffic in barges and river steamers,



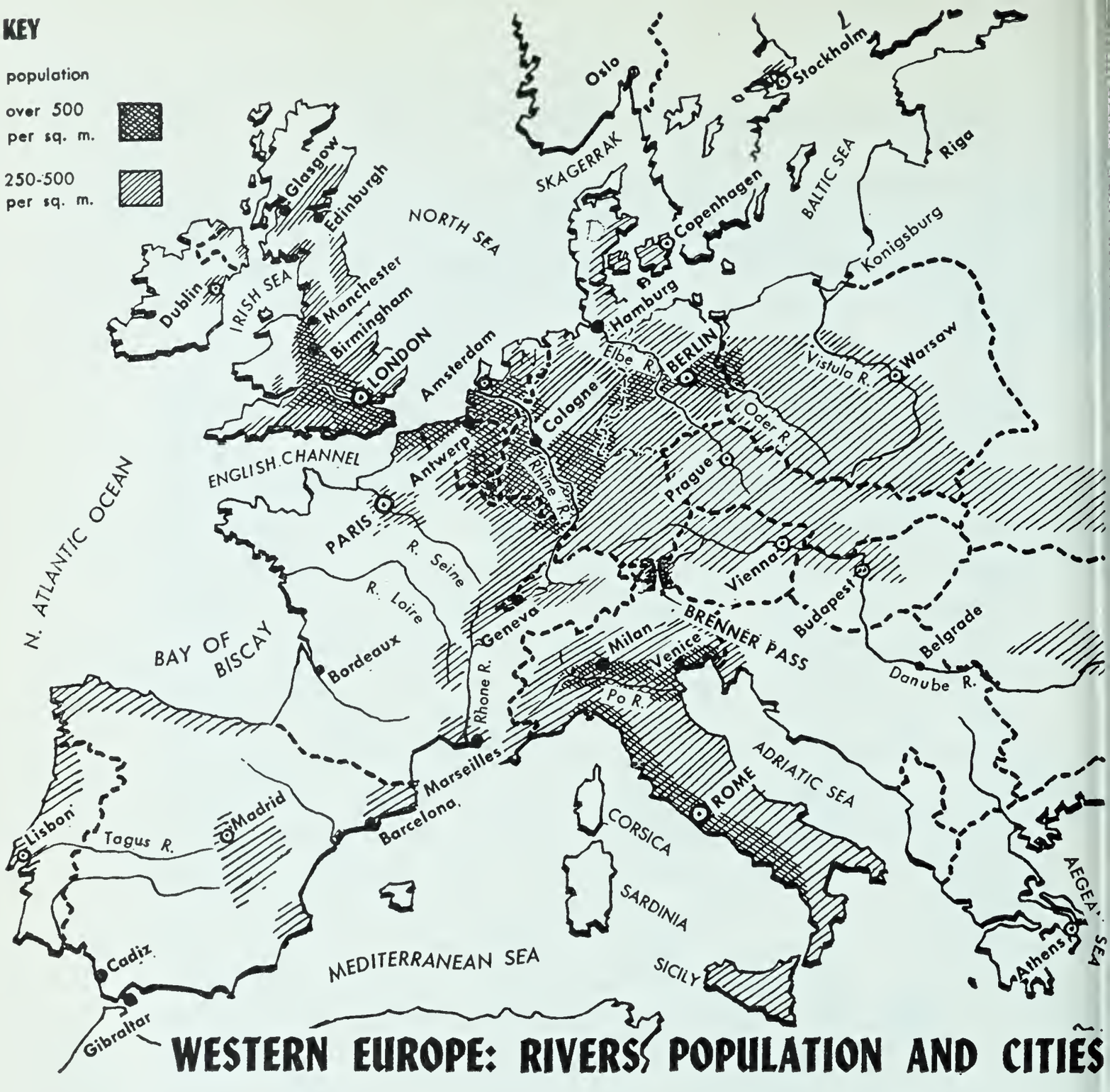
RUSSIA: CITIES AND RESOURCES OF THE U.S.S.R. IN EUROP

like the Tagus, Loire, Rhone, Po, Thames, Elbe and others. And two of them, the Rhine and Danube, stretch practically the whole way across central Europe and provide hundreds of miles of inland water transport. The Rhine, with its beautiful medieval castles on commanding points along the banks, and the Danube, which

breaks through the spectacular gorge of the Iron Gates as it leaves Hungary, also provide two of the famous sights of Europe. Little wonder that with all this coastline and water transport, and with easy access to open seas, rich in fish, Western Europeans have been fishermen, sailors and traders for many centuries.

In its land geography, Western Europe's greatest contrast with Russia lies in its mixture of mountains and flat or rolling stretches of country, most of which is well developed farming land. This mixture gives great variety, and makes countries like England and France most interesting for the traveller since he may find something new around almost every corner. The highest mountains are, of course, the Alps, stretching across southeastern France, Switzerland and Austria, with famous peaks like the Jungfrau (13,671 ft.), the Matterhorn (14,780) and Mont Blanc (15,780), the tallest peak in Europe. Geologists tell us that the Alps are also the youngest mountains of Europe, while the oldest ranges have been worn down through hundreds of millions of years like those in the British Isles, or, even more, like those north of the Alps in eastern France and southern Germany. The mountains of Wales, Scotland, Norway and Sweden are really parts of one system, called the Caledonean. A far greater system is the Alpine. This includes not only the Alps themselves, and the Pyrenees in France and Spain to the southwest, but also the ranges running south and east into Italy, and through the Balkan countries of southeastern Europe. The Carpathians, as well, extend in a sweep through central Europe, through Czechoslovakia and Romania, and around the plains of Hungary.

To see what a remarkable mixture Western Europe is, study a map of its physical features. On it you will see the plains, valleys, mountain passes and other features, without which you cannot understand Europe either today or in the past—high dry tablelands in Spain, the mountain backbone of Switzerland and the Austrian Tyrol, the fertile plains of northern France, northern Italy and Hungary, or the vital Brenner Pass which for centuries



WESTERN EUROPE: RIVERS, POPULATION AND CITIES

has been a main highway between Italy and Germany. Such maps, too, will show the location of Europe's mineral and other resources, which are still very rich, although more and more raw materials have to be imported for European factories. There are, for example, the coal fields of Britain, the iron deposits of Sweden, and the coal and iron of the Ruhr and Saar valleys. These have provided the bases for great industrial developments. Many big industrial concentrations may be found in Western Europe, but in particular we might mention the region around London and the 'industrial North' in England, the Ruhr and Rhineland in Ger-



WESTERN EUROPE: NATIONAL BOUNDARIES & RESOURCES,

many, and the factory-filled area stretching through northeastern France into Belgium.

Western Europe is fortunate in its climate as well. Not only has it ample rainfall, but it lies almost all in the temperate zone, with many variations from the warm, palm-lined 'Riviera' of the Mediterranean to the snowy hills and spruce forests of Norway and Sweden – where skiing was invented. Even in the north the temperature is far less severe than you might expect because of the nearness of the ocean, and especially because of the warm cur-

rent of the Gulf Stream that sweeps up the northwest coasts. It is hard to realize, for example, that the green dairylands of Denmark lie almost as far north as the sub-Arctic barrens around Churchill on Hudson Bay. Thus European agriculture has great variety, ranging from the grain and grazing lands of the north to the vineyards and citrus groves of Mediterranean countries.

With its favourable climate and its varied resources for agriculture, fishing, industry and trade, Europe has become the most densely populated of the continents and contains over 500 million people. England, Belgium and Holland are the most densely populated countries in the world with an average of about 750 inhabitants per square mile. Great cities, therefore, with long histories of wealth and culture, are a most notable feature of Europe. To day they are still treasure houses of man's achievements in the arts, and leading centres of the world's trade besides. Some of their names are well known to everyone – like London (8.2 million), Moscow (5.1), Berlin (3.2) and Paris (2.7), and there are a host of others as well.

Geography has much to do with all this rich development, but it also has another remarkable influence. It both divides and unites Europe. Certainly we can see how geography divides it when we think of the Pyrenees, the Alps, the Carpathians, the mountains of the Balkans, and then of seas like the English Channel and North Sea, which separate the British Isles from the Continent, or the Baltic Sea, the Adriatic, and so on. Russia, too, seems specially separated from the countries of the Atlantic seaboard by distance and the lack of easy direct routes.

Nevertheless, these obstacles of mountains and seas have never been great enough to stop trade, travel and migration from one country to another. Europe has no really great barriers like the Sahara Desert in Africa, the tropical jungles of South America, or the Himalaya Mountains of Asia. Not even the Alps are as difficult a barrier as these. There are ways through. Hence, despite Europe's many divisions, there has always been a certain unity to the

continent as a whole. And when we look at Europe's peoples and nations we shall find plentiful signs of this same unity and division, both of which have grown up through many centuries.

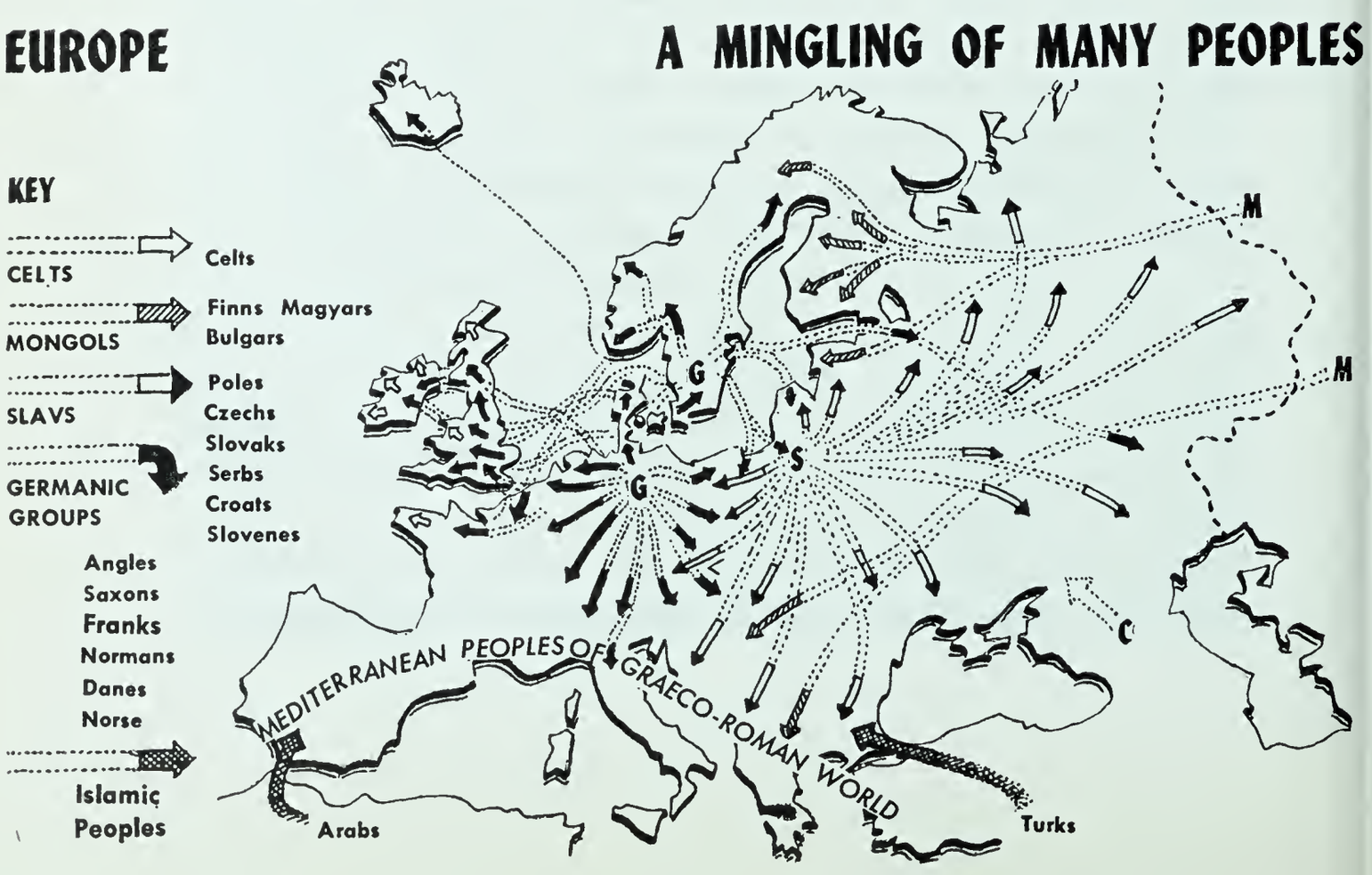
(b) Many Peoples and Many Languages. From the earliest pre-historic times, as we have seen in Unit Three, there were many movements of people in Europe. The mixing and mingling that has gone on must always be kept in mind, if we are to understand Europe in our own day. When we come to the period of written history, it is plain how great this mixing and mingling has been, as a result of invasions, wars and migrations of all kinds. For example the Celts, a Caucasoid people, about 500 B.C. began to push out from their homelands in central and western Europe, until in the next two or three centuries they had moved through France, northward to the British Isles, southward to Spain, and in other directions besides. They were the 'Gauls' the Romans found in France – indeed, the Gauls once sacked Rome itself. Their descendants can still be found today; for instance, in Wales, Ireland, Scotland, Brittany, and other parts of western Europe. Centuries later came sweeping invasions of Huns, Tartars and other Mongol peoples from Asia, and they have left permanent marks on Russia and the eastern regions in general. The Magyars who settled in Hungary, and are still there, were originally of Mongol stock, as were the Bulgars further south in the Balkans.

The Slavs also emerged in eastern Europe in the early centuries of the Christian era. From their homeland, which seems to have been between the Oder and Dnieper rivers, they spread south, east and west until now they form the bulk of the European Russian people. And in central Europe today there are many Slavic groups and nationalities with different customs and languages, such as the Croats, Slovenes and Serbs of Yugoslavia, the Czechs and Slovaks, and the Poles who have been in the region of the Vistula since about the sixth century A.D.

Europe also had other invasions. The Moslem Turks, who attacked from Asia Minor, and in 1453 captured Constantinople,

ruled for several centuries over Greece and most of the Balkans. Twice, in 1529 and 1683, they reached as far west as Vienna, the great capital of Austria, but never succeeded in taking it. For centuries, then, Vienna was a bulwark for Western Europe against invasions from east and south. Further west, the Moslem Arabs or Moors from Africa had invaded Spain in the eighth century, and for 700 years ruled much of the Iberian peninsula. All these long periods of conquest inevitably left their special mark on peoples of the parts of Europe affected.

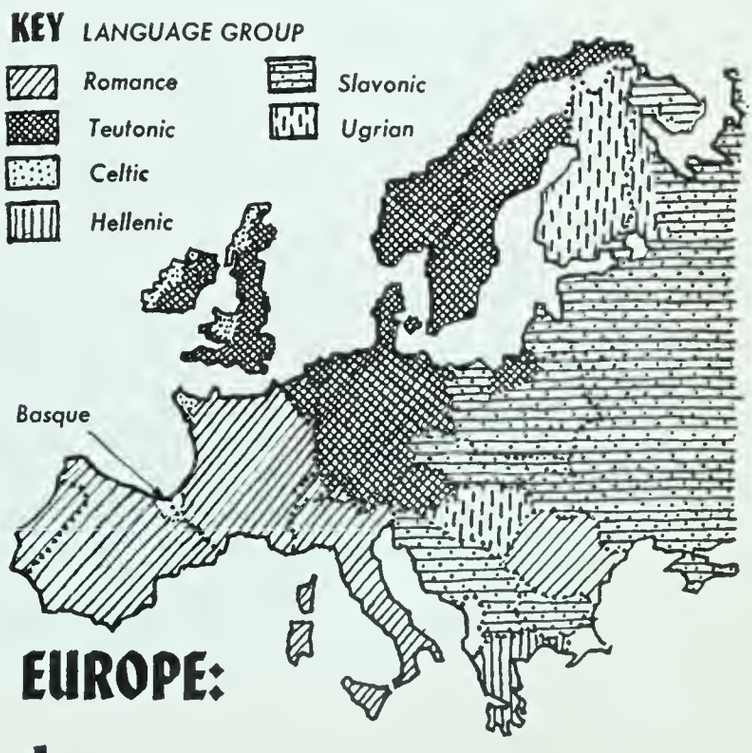
Besides these invasions from outside, there were, of course, many migrations and conquests going on within Europe. In the fourth and fifth centuries, for example, there were the great movements of Germanic tribes that broke up the Roman Empire, from which sprang the modern European states of France, Germany, Italy, and others. The Roman province of Britain also fell before Germanic tribes, the Angles and Saxons, in the fifth century—and thus really began modern 'Angle-Land'. Then came the Norse people of Scandinavia, also of Germanic stock, who became 'Normans' in the part of France they conquered. Danes, and later Normans, took England (1066). Norsemen from Sweden invaded



Russia and set up an empire at Kiev. No wonder, then, there is so much variety of peoples and languages to be found all over Europe!

These are only a few main examples of the way in which various peoples for many centuries have moved and mingled on the European continent. Central Europe and the Balkans are especially complicated in this way, but there are other very complicated parts also, such as Switzerland with its Italian, German, 'Romansch' and French-speaking sections, and the Low Countries (Holland and Belgium) with Dutch, Frisian, Flemish and Walloon groups.

How many languages and dialects Europe has, it is hard to say. Scholars believe that most European languages belong to a very old 'Indo-European' family of languages, which includes languages as far east as the Indo-Aryan tongues of India. But even in Europe this Indo-European family has through the centuries become divided into a surprising number of branches. The chief of these are: Italic, including Latin and the modern languages which have sprung from it (usually called the Romance languages), such as Italian, French, Portuguese, Spanish, and Romanian; Teutonic, including English, German, Norwegian, Swedish and Danish; Celtic, including Welsh, Gaelic and Breton; Slavonic, including Russian, Polish, Serbian, Czech, and others; and Hellenic, including modern Greek. In addition, there are the tongues of the Finns and Magyars, belonging to an entirely different language family, the Ugrian, which came originally from east of the Urals. Then too there is the language of the Basques, who live in a corner of northeastern Spain and southwestern France. Basque with its seven dialects seems unrelated



EUROPE: A MINGLING OF MANY TONGUES

to any other European language. Probably the Basques are descended from some ancient Iberian people, but their origin is still a mystery.

All these divisions into peoples and languages help to explain why Europe is divided into so many countries and nations, large and small. Altogether there are about thirty, all the way from little San Marino (38 square miles), Andorra, and Liechtenstein, which can scarcely be called nations, to the large and important countries with well-known names. Even with so many, however, it is impossible for every group or language to have a different country. Indeed, in such parts as central Europe and the Balkans the different groups are so mixed together that no clear boundaries could possibly be drawn. In some cases, such as Norway, Portugal and Iceland, the boundary of the nation is much the same as that for the language, but this is true of very few countries. Even in so old a country as France, which has been united for centuries, there are still many varieties of people and dialect. There are also many French-speaking people outside France, for instance in Belgium and Switzerland. Having more than one group in a country does not necessarily cause trouble, however. Little Switzerland with its twenty-two cantons and its four official languages is a wonderful example here, for its peoples have worked together and defended their freedom since the days of William Tell, when they won their independence over six hundred years ago.

Yet the difficulty of finding national boundaries which will suit the many different groups and languages is certainly one of the reasons for Europe's troubles in the past. Until this century, it is true that, especially in central Europe, land was often transferred from one country to another at the will of victorious rulers, without paying much attention to the people or their languages. After the First World War a real attempt was made to draw boundaries according to the wishes of the people, but a number of these new countries have since proved to be too small and weak to resist outside threats, and so the map of central Europe has changed again as a result of the Second World War and the events since it

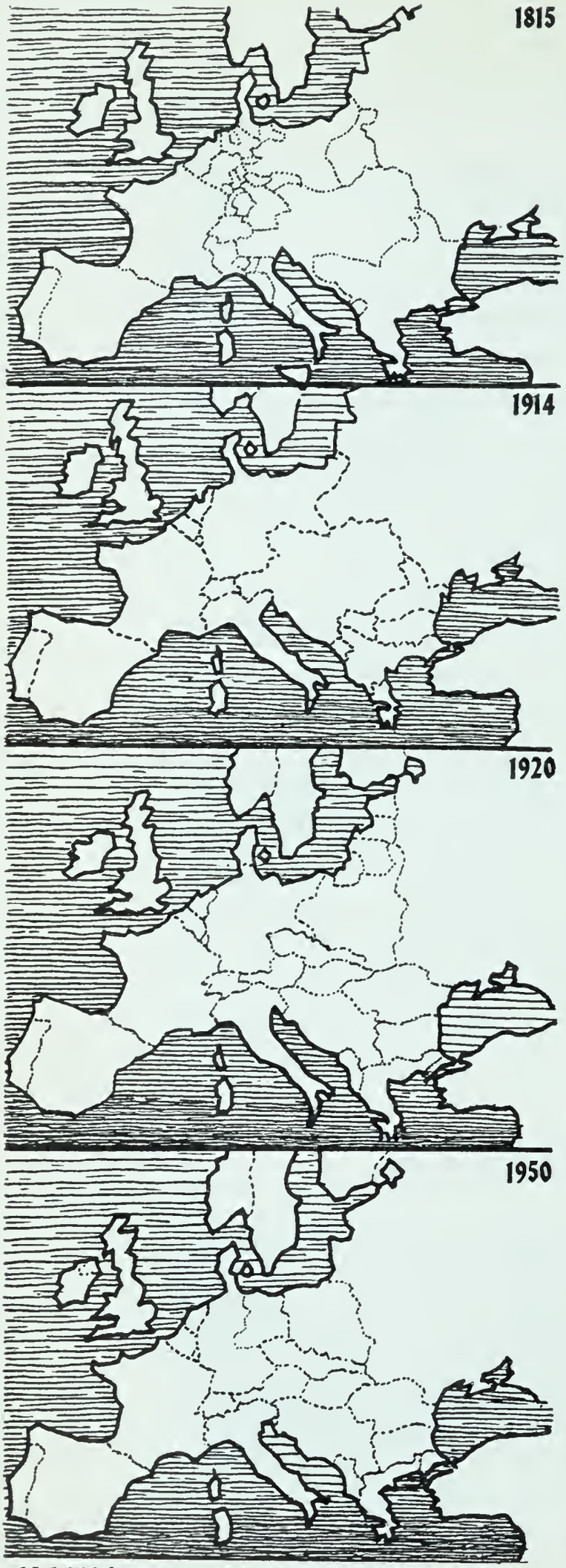
ended. Nothing shows so well how changeable national boundaries have been as the maps of Europe in the last hundred years or so. Compare, for example, the map of 1815, as it was re-drawn after Napoleon was defeated, with the map of 1914, when the First World War began and then with the maps of 1920 and 1950[1]. You will see that, while a number of nations in the west have remained much the same, the structure of Europe from the Rhine to Russia has changed again and again. Moreover, still further changes are bound to take place, since the Second World War left deep divisions and problems which, as we shall see later, are perhaps more serious than Europe has ever had before.

What unity then has Europe had, if for centuries it has been divided into so many groups with different languages, and into warring nations with changing boundaries? The answer is that in spite of all these divisions, Europe has developed through the centuries something called European civilization. Just what it is, is difficult to say, which is of course, true of every civilization. But certainly it exists, and we know that it has spread far beyond Europe to other continents, above all, to our own. Let us then try to get some idea of what European civilization is. And we may find that the very diversity of the parts of Europe, and its mingling of many elements, has a good deal to do with the strong, rich and many-sided civilization which is that continent's greatest achievement.

3. The Achievements of Europe's Civilization

How many kinds of music can you recognize? Very few you may say. But perhaps if you tried, you might surprise yourself, for most of us can recognize an Irish jig, a Spanish dance, an American cowboy tune, a Scotch song, a Russian chorus, an African drum beat, a Negro spiritual, an Indian snake charmer's pipe, and so on. Each of them has its own qualities, which we can

[1] See p. 212.



NATIONAL BOUNDARIES CHANGE ACROSS EUROPE

recognize, even though we would find it difficult to tell exactly what they are.

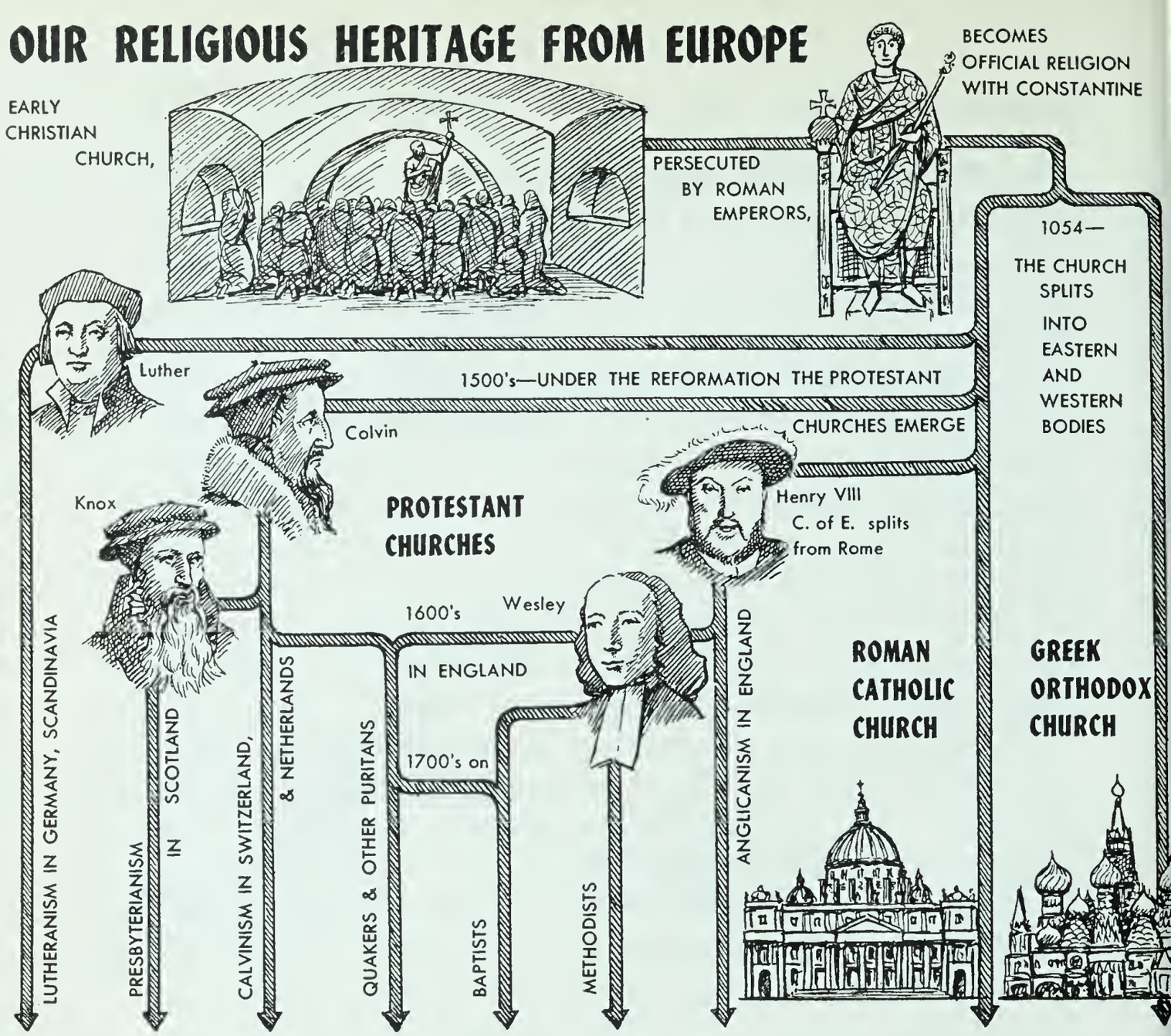
So it is with a civilization. Europe's civilization, in spite of the many great differences among European countries themselves, is different, for example, from that of India or ancient Egypt. Often we can tell at a glance to what civilization things belong. This, we say, is a Chinese painting, that is an Indian carving or building, that is European dress, or a European way of doing things. Even with things which we cannot see the same is often true. Those, we say, are Eastern ideas, while this is a European way of reasoning. So, while it may be impossible to describe exactly what European civilization is, it is possible to get a clearer picture of it by studying some of the important things which have grown out of it and which we can see today in the world around us.

In Unit Three we considered the rise and spread of European civilization as part of world civilization generally, but what we must do now is to look at some of its main achievements, all of which we inherit in Canada, as do many other countries, wholly or in part, in other regions of the world.

(a) Religion and the Arts. First of all there is religion. Christianity, the faith of the great bulk of Canadians, may have begun in Palestine and the Near East, but it took strongest and most lasting root in Europe. Indeed, for centuries, during the Middle Ages, Europe had a particular kind of unity as the realm of 'Christendom', surrounded by a sea of hostile Moslem and pagan peoples eager to attack and overthrow the Christian lands. And however divided these lands might be, the Crusades showed that they felt as one where Christianity was concerned. In later ages Christian Europe no longer stood on the defensive, and Christianity spread to the New World and to many other areas besides. Nevertheless, the Christian faith still supplied a great and unifying force running through European civilization, and linking new lands like Canada into a world-wide community of religion.

It is true that many divisions have arisen in Christianity. Even in the Middle Ages the Church of Eastern Europe divided from that of the West, and thus two main branches of Christianity developed: the Roman Catholic Church in Western Europe and the Greek Catholic or Greek Orthodox in Eastern. The latter spread from Greece and Constantinople eastward throughout Russia and also northward into the Balkan lands. In fact, one of the chief influences shaping Russia's own kind of European civilization was the Orthodox Church. It helped to mark off the lands of Eastern Europe from those of the West, and even under communism it still exists today.

Then in the sixteenth century the unity of western Christendom under the Church of Rome was broken by the Protestant Reformation. Strong new Protestant forms of Christianity emerged, chiefly in north European lands, shaped by religious reformers like Luther in Germany, Calvin in Switzerland, Knox in Scotland, and many others. Lutheranism became firmly established in Germany and Scandinavia, Calvinism—or Presbyterianism—in the Netherlands, Scotland, Switzerland and parts of France. Anglicanism shaped the church in England, and here in time Puritanism also emerged to have great influence both on England and on her American colonies.



All these European religious developments would, of course, play their part in Canada. Roman Catholicism came to this country with the original French settlers, and later with Irish and Highland Scots, and still later with Poles, Italians and many others besides. The Presbyterian, Anglican and other Protestant churches came largely from Britain — though German Mennonites and other continental Protestants also brought their own forms — Lutherans from Iceland, Greek Orthodox Ukrainians, Russian Doukhobors — practically all the great religious variety from Europe is reflected in our own Canadian mosaic.

The effects of the dividing of Christianity may be plainly seen in Europe today. Indeed, at one time — in the latter sixteenth and early seventeenth centuries — it brought bitter religious wars. Nev-

ertheless, Christianity through the centuries has still united European civilization far more than it divided it. The Bible was the one book which was known all through Europe and read in Latin and Greek, and later in every modern language. Millions of people in every country have tried sincerely to follow Jesus' teaching and example. The Lord's Prayer was known and said everywhere. The churches for centuries were the founders of schools and universities, and for hundreds of years Christian ideas and the Christian story inspired painting, music and art of all kinds, all through Europe. Christianity, perhaps, was the greatest thing that Europeans had in common, even though European civilization has never been fully Christian, or succeeded in living up to the very high Christian ideals. Christianity was, moreover, a bridge between the considerably different lands of Western and Eastern Europe. Furthermore, it brought into European civilization the great contribution of Jewish thought, through the Old Testament, which spread to the world through the Christian religion.

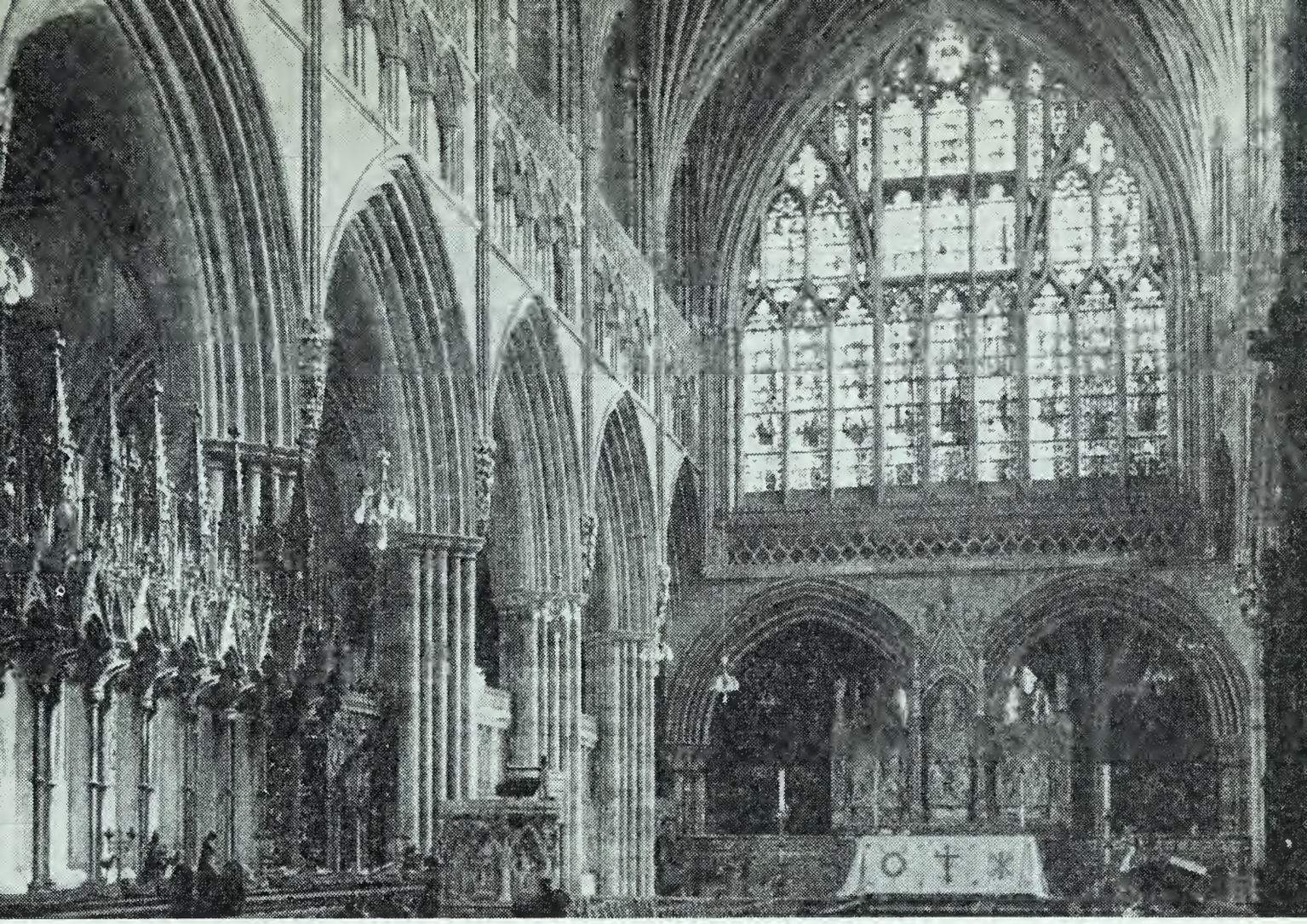
We must also consider the brilliant achievements of Europe in the arts. Here at first glance we may again see more signs of variety than unity. Certainly every European country has produced its own particular kind of culture, and takes pride in its own great national figures in literature, painting, music, and so on. Nevertheless, the arts do not stop at national boundaries: there has been a constant exchange of ideas across Europe, and many different peoples have shared in their development. Moreover, the work of the greatest figures is known and appreciated far beyond their own countries. Thus, for instance, the plays of England's Shakespeare, the political works of Rousseau, written in French, or the novels of Goethe in German, have been read in translation in many lands. And the painting of Holland's Rembrandt or the music of Austria's Mozart can speak to people everywhere.

In general, in fact, we can find strong evidence of unity as well as wonderful diversity in the artistic products of Europe. There are far, far too many for us to discuss here, but a few examples

may point out some of Europe's overall achievements in the arts, and how much we in Canada are indebted to them.

Let us look at architecture for a moment. The ancient Greeks brought the use of the pillar to a perfection never seen before, in their finely proportioned, columned temples like the beautiful Parthenon of Athens. The Romans took over the idea of these pillar-supported buildings, and added the use of the arch. Magnificent Greco-Roman architecture spread over a large part of western Europe. Then, in the early Middle Ages and notably in Normandy, the 'Romanesque' church developed, using many pillars and rounded arches in rows inside thick-walled buildings, in order to span broad areas. And finally came that splendid triumph of medieval Europe, the Gothic cathedral, which developed tall pointed arches and outside wall supports, or buttresses, so that churches could soar high in the air with lofty ceilings, while walls could be pierced with great expanses of wonderful stained-glass windows, whose colours have never since been equalled. The development of Gothic architecture was not limited to any one country, though each produced its characteristic styles, especially France, Germany and England. But throughout western and central Europe the underlying unity of European civilization showed itself in this great achievement of the Gothic style of building.

Europe did not cease to develop the art of architecture with Gothic, and other styles continued to emerge. Can we find all these in Canada? Decidely – for on the whole, except for the skyscraper, built about an inner steel framework, North America has not yet produced many important building forms of its own. It largely uses or develops the European. Your bank may show you Greek pillars, your city hall Roman arches; your churches will surely reveal the influence of Romanesque or Gothic. And even the 'typically' North American colonial architecture shows in its wooden buildings the influence of Greek pillars and Roman arched windows – since this style largely came from the Georgian architecture of eighteenth century England, which was itself a revival of older European forms. Furthermore, 'modern' or contemporary



Courtesy United Kingdom Information Office

EXETER CATHEDRAL

A magnificent example of Gothic architecture

architecture on this continent is still considerably influenced by present-day European ideas on building for the twentieth century.

As with architecture, so with painting, literature or music. We have no time to go into their centuries of development in Europe; but we can say that, in painting indeed, Canada's artists have been almost too much influenced by European models, for thus far it is largely only in landscape painting that they have produced a distinctly Canadian kind of art. We are also developing our own Canadian kind of literature; yet it is plain what a great and lasting debt we owe to Europe in this respect, and especially to the riches of English literature. In music we have as yet even less of our own, but Canadians all across the country hear and enjoy the magnificent works of Europe's Mozart, Beethoven, Wagner, Tchaikowsky, Brahms, and a host of others.

(b) Science and Invention. Our debt to Europe in science and invention is no less great than that in the arts. Here too Euro-

pean civilization has shown its unity; for major inventions and scientific advances have not just been the product of one man working in one country, but rather of a number of persons labouring in several lands. The introduction of printing with movable type, so important for every aspect of modern life, is for instance, normally linked to the name of Gutenberg, its fifteenth-century German inventor. Yet Italian printers who soon followed him really created the modern printed book, with the kinds of type we know today, and Caxton in England, who produced the first printed books for the ordinary layman, also played a notable part in this outstanding achievement.

In a similar way, the evolution of modern physics and astronomy in Europe — from which comes much of our present knowledge of the universe — must be linked especially to Copernicus, a Pole, Galileo, an Italian, and Newton, an Englishman. And the foundations of modern chemistry were laid by men like Boyle of Ireland and Lavoisier of France; of modern biology by Linnaeus, a Swede, and Darwin, an Englishman. Men from every part of Europe have shared in creating our present-day scientific learning. But one of the most important contributions that European civilization has made to science, generally, lies in the development of an essential method for gaining scientific knowledge. One brief story may illustrate this fact.

On a July day in 1881, in a little French village, a group of men including some of the most important in France were looking at twenty-five dead sheep, and then with excitement at twenty-five others standing nearby, alive and healthy. This was the scene of the greatest triumph of one of Europe's most famous scientists, Louis Pasteur, sometimes called the father of modern medicine. Pasteur had said some months before that sheep and cattle might be protected against the terrible disease of anthrax by injecting into their blood some of the weakened germs of anthrax itself. In this way they might develop an immunity or power to resist the disease. Pasteur was laughed at for this wild theory, as many thought

it. So he took fifty sheep, vaccinated twenty-five of them with his anthrax serum, and then later injected anthrax germs into all fifty. On the July day when Pasteur's enemies and friends came to see the result the twenty-five vaccinated sheep were alive, the twenty-five others were dead. He had put his theory to actual test; that is, he had followed the scientific method of building knowledge by conducting experiments to prove theories and discover truths.

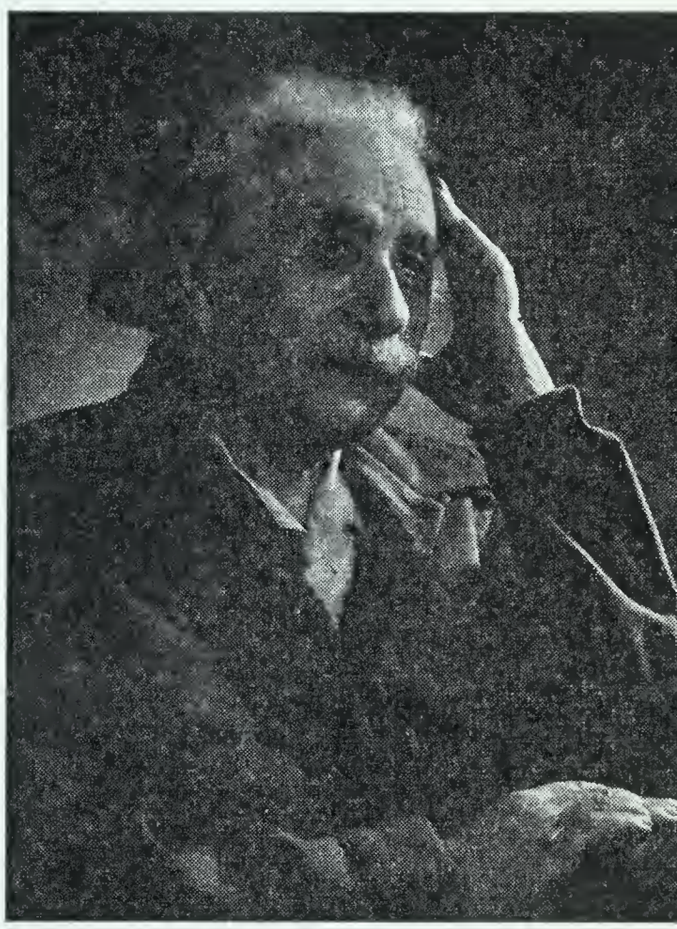


Photo by Karsh

ALBERT EINSTEIN

This famous incident is only one of the many thousands that might be told about the history of European science; and Pasteur, whose name we use every day when we speak of pasteurized milk, is only one of the many thousands of scientists whose research and experiments have changed our modern world. Indeed, science is one of the greatest products of European civilization. Other civilizations built up great stores of knowledge; yet only in European civilization was the scientific method developed to any extent. This method, of carrying out experiments to find out new facts and reasons for things, was used by the ancient Greeks, but they carried it only a short distance. Through the Middle Ages the method of experiment was applied to some extent, but in the fourteenth and fiftenth centuries, the period we call the Renaissance, it developed very rapidly. Among its great pioneers was the famous Italian, Leonardo da Vinci, (1452-1519) one of the most remarkable geniuses who ever lived. Leonardo excelled at everything, painting, architecture, engineering and invention, and in science he left many fruitful ideas. "We must begin by experiment", he wrote, "and endeavour by its means to discover general principles."

By far the greatest development of science has been in the last hundred, or even fifty years, and although in that time America too has made great contributions, Europe's scientists have by no means fallen behind. Some of them have now come to North America to continue their work; for example, Albert Einstein, the leading figure in modern physics and mathematics, the father of the theory of relativity. We may say that America and Europe have now drawn level in science but their achievements still fit together within the broad outlines of European civilization, since America is really part of it.

Another of the great products of European civilization lies in the invention of machines — and especially power-driven machines. Here again we find that America — or really the United States — has played a very large part. But at first the key inventions came in Europe, and chiefly in Great Britain, where the Industrial Revolution and our machine age truly began. As time went on new machines were also invented in America, and highly important original work was done there by men like Alexander Graham Bell and Thomas Edison. Even so, the process of invention often went forward on both sides of the Atlantic at about the same time; and men on either side made use of and improved each other's inventions to everyone's benefit. Thus, for example, Morse in the United States and Wheatstone in England each produced a working electric telegraph in the 1830's. The steam engine, developed by James Watt in Britain in the 1780's, was successfully put to use in steam boats in the early 1800's by Symington in Scotland and Fulton in America within a few years of each other. And it was a Canadian steamship, the *Royal William*, that in 1833 first crossed the Atlantic under power the whole way.

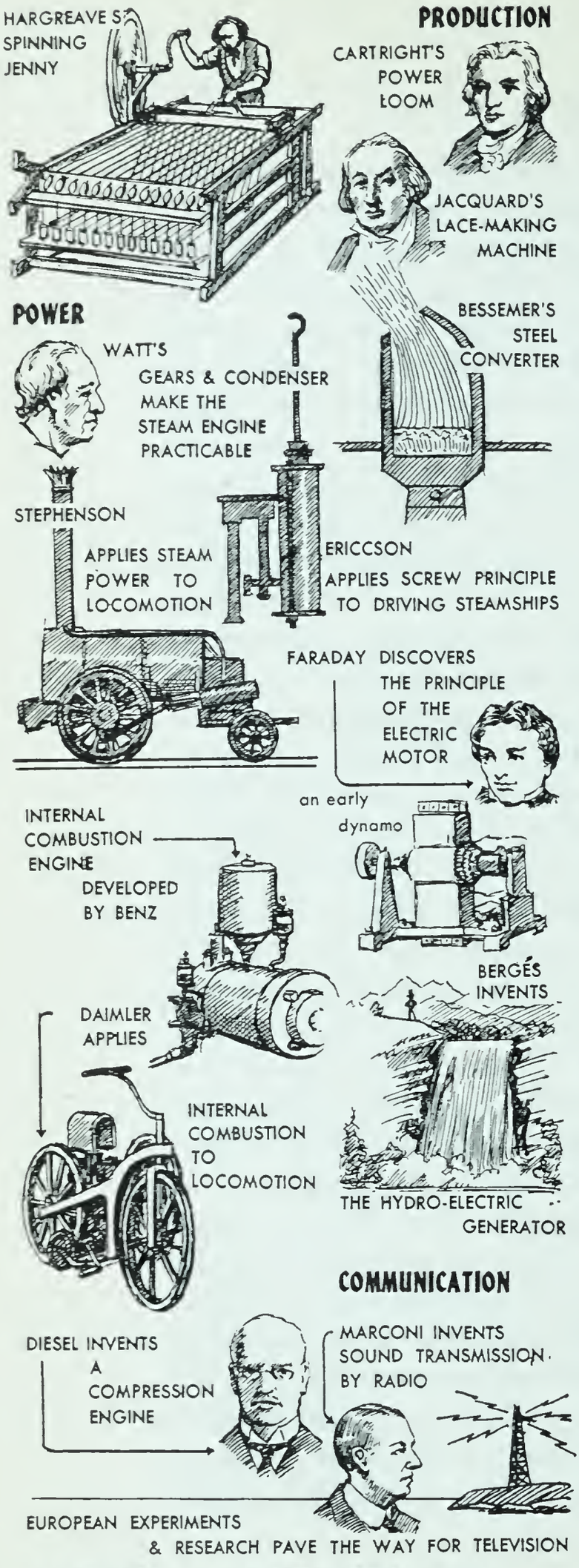
Yet all this only points again to the fact that, since Europe's civilization had been extended to America, both shared in developing the machine age. In Europe itself, however, we find a great number of inventions that played a vital part in producing our modern industrial world. Once more there are too many to describe. We can only look at three main lines of development:

the introduction of factory machinery, the mass production of iron and steel, and the invention of engines to supply power.

As regards the first, we may mention the development of spinning and weaving machines for the textile industry, which really launched the Industrial Revolution in late eighteenth century Britain: Hargreaves' 'spinning jenny' of 1765, for example, and Cartwright's power loom of 1787. Factory machinery then spread in other western European countries: for instance, Jacquard invented a successful lace-making machine in France in 1804. As for the second line of development, Britain again led the way in producing iron in large quantities during the eighteenth century. In the mid-nineteenth, Bessemer, an Englishman, and Siemens, a German, developed methods for turning iron into steel so cheaply and efficiently that our present age of steel could come into being.

With respect to engines to drive the complex factory machinery and to make possible a revolution in transport, Europe as we know produced the steam engine — for surely almost everyone has heard of Scotland's James Watt in this connection. But many other inventors had a share; the Englishman Robert Stephenson, for instance, who had developed the locomotive by 1825, or the Swede John Ericcson who not long after pioneered with the propellor-driven steamship. And then there is electric power. Here the work of England's Michael Faraday (called the world's greatest experimenter) made possible the dynamo and the electric motor. These were developed, but it was a Frenchman, Bergés, who largely made possible the use of electric power on a grand scale, since he worked out a way of harnessing the rushing streams of the French Alps in the 1860's to produce electricity. We in Canada, with our great reliance on 'hydro', should be particularly grateful to him. And although it does not truly fit into our story, it seems worth adding that it was an Italian, Marconi, who first turned electricity to the transmission of radio messages in 1896.

Still further, the engine driven by gasoline or oil was invented in Europe. Benz and Daimler in Germany in the 1880's produced the internal combustion engine, thus making possible the modern



EUROPE'S CONTRIBUTIONS TO THE INDUSTRIAL ERA

automobile and aeroplane. Of course today jet engines are driving more and more aircraft, and they have been largely invented in Britain and Germany. Finally, we should notice that before 1900 a German, Rudolf Diesel, produced the engine that bears his name, and which now powers so many heavy locomotives and large ships.

We need not expect you to remember all these names — which are still only a small selection — but they do show how men in many European lands laid the foundations of our machine age.

Today we take the machine age so much for granted that it is hard to imagine great civilizations like those of ancient Rome, Egypt, or China living completely without power-driven machinery except for simple wind or water mills. Still, we know that these ancient civilizations had m a n y remarkable things, like the roads and aqueducts of Rome, the great wall of China, and the pyramids of Egypt, all built without mechanical power. But if we could visit one of these old civilizations, we should soon see how they got on without p o w e r and machines. It was through the backbreaking toil not only of animals but of men, wom-

en and children, millions of them slaves. Slavery was the curse of the ancient world, and if a few enjoyed learning, luxury and the arts, the vast mass had little or nothing but hopeless drudgery. Power and machines have brought many problems, as we shall see, but they have also opened up vast possibilities of progress. This then is yet one more of the tremendous gifts of European civilization to the modern world.

(c) The Art of Government. In 1952, in India, the largest single election ever held took place. There were over one hundred and seventy million voters. Such an event would have been quite impossible in an ancient civilization, but today there are hundreds of millions of voters all over the world who vote in thousands of elections, large and small, choosing representatives to take part in their governments. And this highly important practice, that allows men to rule themselves, developed out of European civilization. Ancient Athens, of course, was a democracy, but there the citizens took a direct part in deciding on government policies; they did not elect representatives to decide for them. This 'direct democracy' was fine and free, but we can see that it would only work in a small city state, not in a large country. (Could you imagine all the citizens of Canada turning up in Ottawa to run the nation's affairs!) Thus the idea of electing representatives was an essential one for modern free government, and it grew up out of medieval Europe.

Its earliest beginnings, which seem to have come from old German tribes such as the Angles and Saxons, can be traced back for more than a thousand years. Iceland's Parliament, indeed, dates from 930. Yet Britain has made the greatest contribution to parliamentary government, so that her parliament is well called the 'Mother of Parliaments'. We know that our own Canadian parliamentary system is modelled on hers. The examples of Switzerland, the Netherlands and France in Europe have been very important too. In fact, the great French Revolution of the 1790's proclaimed principles of democracy that still echo through European civilization today, and all around the world.

All sorts of other political ideas have grown along with European ideas of representation and parliamentary government: the idea that people have a right to make the laws which govern them; that there should even be written constitutions, so that the rights of people should be clearly understood; the idea of federations (which was early developed in Switzerland), so that parts of countries can have governments to look after their special interests as well as there being an overall national government; the idea of conducting debates and public meetings in fair and orderly fashion — the list of Europe's contributions to government is nearly endless. Ideas of free government and the rights of the individual citizen were not, of course, practised equally all over that continent. Russia, for example, never had very much of them at any time, which is one of the chief reasons why a communist totalitarian state can flourish in Russia today.

Nationalism is another very significant political development that stems from Europe. In Unit Three we saw how it emerged there, and all we need do now is recall its great power both for good and evil. As well as ideas of democracy and nationalism, however, European civilization also developed our modern kind of education, that seeks to make people self-reliant individuals and responsible citizens, able to share in their own nation's government. The first universities grew up in medieval Europe, when the Church kept education alive. Then, with the invention of printing — the first printed Bible was completed in Mainz in Germany in 1456 — books increasingly came within the reach of everyone and education was greatly widened in its effects. But schools for everyone came far more slowly. Though the first tax supported schools were actually established in New England in the 1630's, it was not until the nineteenth century that this idea spread widely to England and other European countries, so that public education became general.

And so out of European civilization have come religion, arts, science, machines, democracy, nationalism, education, and more ideas of improving the health and welfare of the common people

than have ever appeared in any other civilization. All these have vastly affected Canada's whole outlook and development, as well as those of many other countries all around the globe.

With all these advances have come problems, however. Science, machines and inventions do not make man wiser. They give him more power but they do not show him how to use it. Machines should be the slaves of men, but sometimes it seems as if men are in danger of becoming the slaves of machines. And now science has given us the power, with atomic energy, virtually to destroy ourselves. These are some of the problems that have come out of European civilization, and when Canada looks at Europe she cannot help but think seriously about them.

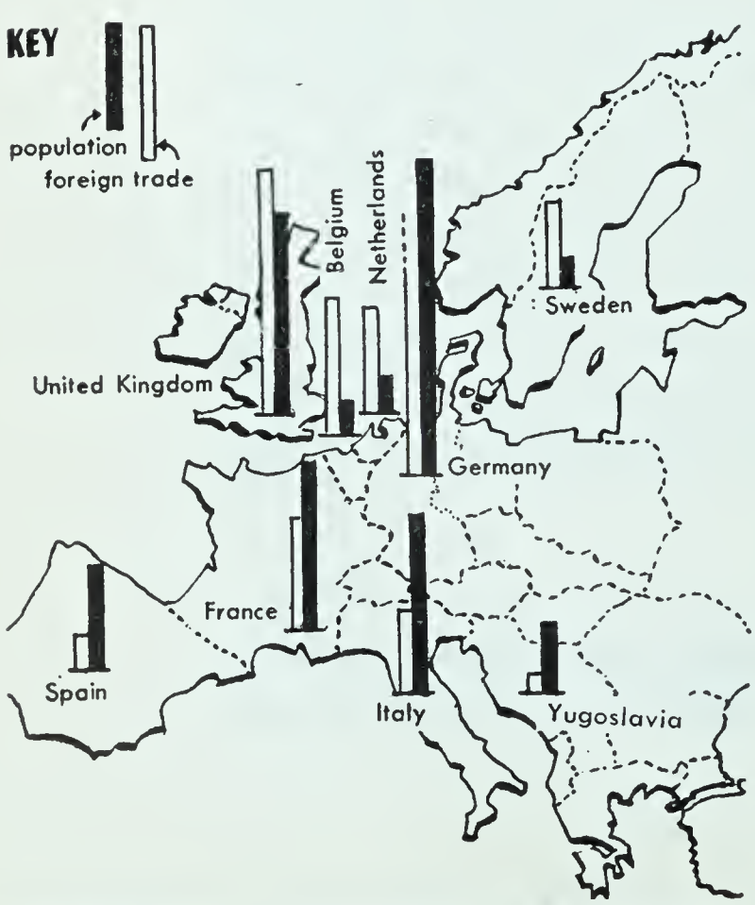
This is so not only because she is a part of that civilization, but because, with the spread of Europe's power, achievements and ideas right around the globe, the whole world has become tied to the fate of that continent. It is true, no doubt, that Europe's power has now declined, as other continents stir themselves, and especially since North America has become so powerful — though it might be said that the strongest centre of European civilization today lies in America! But whether European power has decreased or not, it is still probably true that the whole future turns on events in that continent; above all, on whether there will be peace or a third world war. Troubles may arise elsewhere between peoples, but how they affect the situation in Europe — and whether communism can add the great strength of western European lands to its side or not — may well decide the whole balance between the free and the unfree world, and therefore the final outcome of events. Hence Canadians must look carefully at Europe today, not just because they must naturally be interested in the mother continent that shaped their civilization, but because their very security and freedom are involved in it.

4. Europe Today

(a) The Leading European Countries. The principal countries of Europe aside from Soviet Russia are

still, as they long have been, Britain, France and Germany. In second rank of importance are Italy, Belgium, the Netherlands, Sweden and Yugoslavia. Portugal, Spain and Greece on the south, Switzerland and Austria in the middle, and Ireland, Norway and the Baltic lands to the north are of less significance. Of course there are also the states of eastern Europe—Poland, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Bulgaria and Romania—but all of these are under Russian domination and to all intents count as part of the huge communist Russian empire.

From this listing it is clear that size and even population are not the deciding factors in settling the importance of a European country. Industrial development, resources, and standard of living have far more to do with it. Thus, although it is small, highly industrialized, prosperous Belgium may count for more than Spain, which is much bigger and more populous, but is poor and comparatively backward. Still population has some effect. Hence, while the Scandinavian lands have a high standard of living, and Sweden especially has big industries and rich resources of minerals and timber, they are still too small in population to be of great importance. The chief countries of Europe, though, Britain, France and Germany, all have large populations, high living standards and great industrial development. Also they generally have excellent agricultural land and valuable mineral resources.



EUROPE'S LEADING NATIONS

Of course, Britain's population of close to fifty million cannot all be fed by the fertile farmlands of that crowded island. About a third of their foodstuffs must be imported, along with many raw materials. But an island "resting on

coal and surrounded with a sea of fish" still cannot be called poor in resources. Despite great economic difficulties after the Second World War, that strained her resources to the limit and inflicted great bomb damage, Britain has come a long way back. The industrial skill of the British people is another great resource that still provides her with markets all around the world for her textiles, machinery, chemical products, automobiles and aircraft.

Her large merchant fleet too, the biggest in the world, also helps keep up Britain's leading position, and her many rich colonial possessions aid as well. Thus with her wide experience in world affairs — best shown in statesmen like Sir Winston Churchill — she remains a Great Power, the greatest in western Europe, and North America's most important ally there. Canadians have their own special Commonwealth bond with Britain. Yet they should also see that, quite apart from any ties of sentiment or common background and tradition, it is the link between the strength of Britain and the strength of North America that does a great deal to give the free world a lead over communist lands, and so provides perhaps our best chance for keeping our peace and security. Besides, the British people with their age-old tradition of free parliamentary government, their loyalty to strength-giving symbols like the crown, and their surprising ability to adapt to change (seen in their many reforms to improve the people's welfare since 1945), provide a firm foundation for liberty and democracy in Europe.

The island kingdom of Britain is both part of Europe and part of a world-wide partnership of nations, but France is above all a European country. Indeed, for centuries she was 'the grand nation' of Europe, the chief country on the continent, the main centre of its wealth and culture. France today has lost much of her former position. Even by 1870 Germany had surpassed her as the strongest nation on the continent. And now, sorely troubled by a powerful communist movement on one side and strong 'rightist'—almost fascist—forces on the other, it seems that even her pride in her great national achievements is departing.

We must not be too gloomy, however. It is true that France appears to show much uncertainty in government: the prime ministers and cabinets of the French republic seem to enter and resign office with bewildering speed, and there is crisis after crisis. Yet this is largely the result of France's own special version of democracy. Very often the prime minister and government seem to fall, but to a considerable extent the same men — like Bidault and Schuman — merely change their offices around to suit the shifts in the balance of a large number of political parties. Also France has recovered remarkably well from the Second World War, when Hitler's conquering German armies actually occupied her, and when her territory was fought over, as in the war of 1914-18. Her very rich farmlands and sturdy peasant population give her deep-rooted strength, while her factories are booming again. Nor does Paris show much evidence of failing as the capital of the world's artists and the home of new movements of thought.



Miller Services

BOMB DAMAGE IN BERLIN

Germany also has made a striking recovery from the severe war damage caused both by air bombardment and by Hitler's last bitter struggle on land to hold back the invading Russian and Anglo-American armies in 1945. It might be said that the laying waste of many great German cities was only a return for the destruction and suffering Nazi Germany had inflicted on so many people. But whether that is so or not, the fact remains that Germany faced a colossal task of rebuilding after the Second World War. As a conquered country, moreover, she was occupied by the armies of the United States, Britain, France and Russia, each of which were given its 'zone' to control.

Yet in this dark situation there appeared the best side of that strong and disciplined German character, that has sometimes expressed its worst side in accepting dictators and taking to war. Despite the war damage, German industries were rapidly restored and modernized, so that now they are again successfully competing in many world markets. Cities were cleared, the standard of living steadily rose. In much of Germany — the three-quarters controlled by the western Allies — democratic government was established, and under an able leader, Adenauer, it seemed to be working with success, in spite of rumours that Nazi groups were still waiting 'underground'.

Today Germany is again a prosperous and powerful industrial nation in the heart of Europe. But because of that very fact she raises grave problems for the world. Her chief desire is to regain her national unity, to join the East Germany which is still dominated by the Russians to the West Germany that the western Allies controlled. Yet Russia fears such a re-union, lest a strong, united Germany again turn against her as she did under Hitler. On the other hand, the West must guard against Russian plans to unite Germany under communist control. Thus Germany remains the greatest trouble spot in Europe at present, her future still undecided. But this brings us to the particular problems facing Europe today, and a discussion of these will serve to end this unit.

(b) Problems of a Divided Continent. Europe as we know has long been deeply divided by nationalism. However much national differences may have done to produce the wonderfully rich variety of European life, it has also caused bitter rivalries and wars over boundaries, over the possession of territory, over the right to govern this or that group of people. Europe has also been divided by tariffs, by different currencies, and by trade barriers set up by almost every country against its neighbours. Nations have been drawn by fear into armament races and forced to spend vast sums on weapons which could have been better spent to improve the lives of their people. It is these political and economic divisions

which have torn Europe and brought about the terrible destruction of two World Wars.

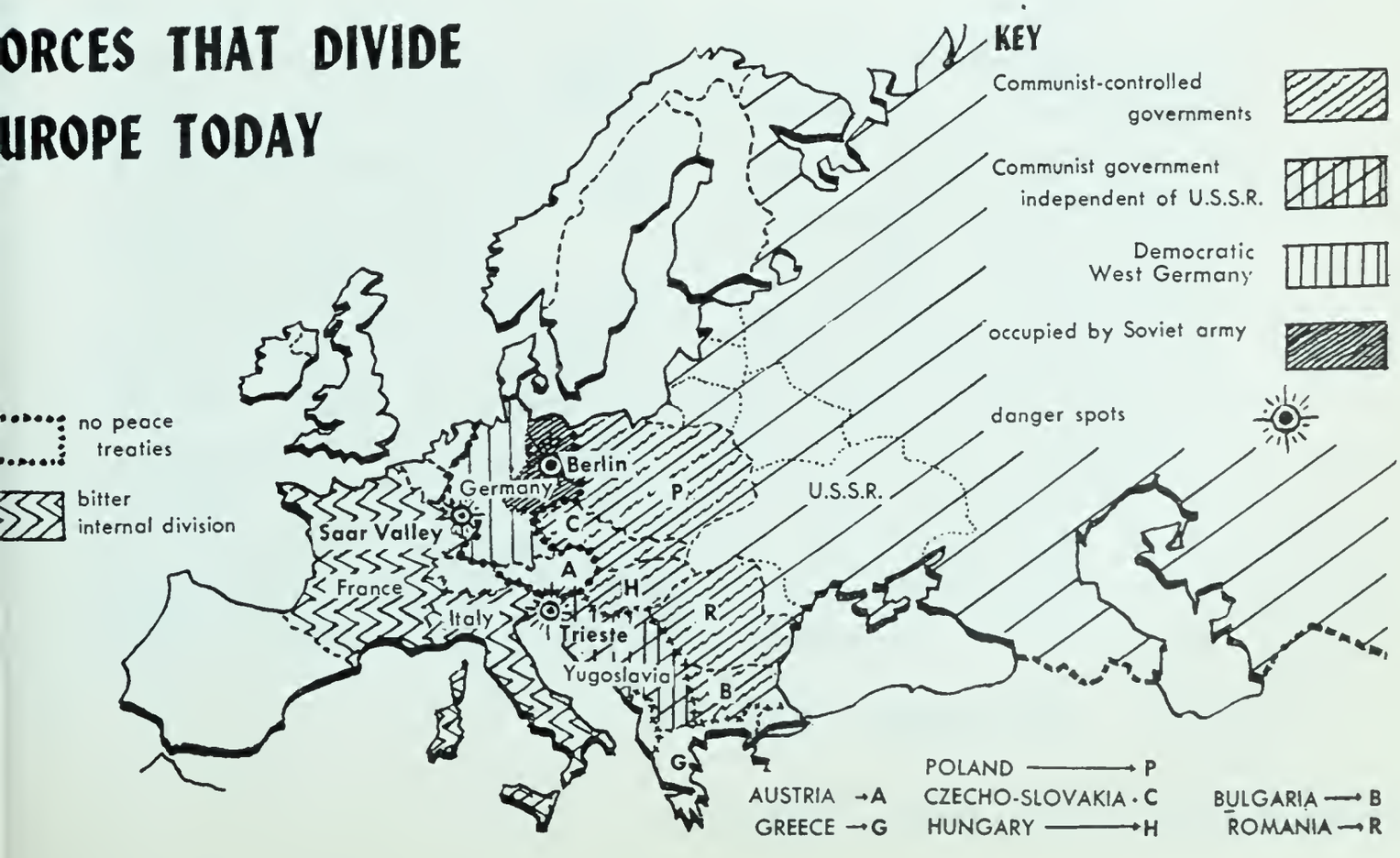
Europe's divisions have also become more serious as a result of these wars. We have already noticed how broken up central Europe especially has been, and how national boundaries there have changed. Several of the small nations created after the First World War have now disappeared completely.

Moreover, the rise of communism has brought a still greater division into European life since the First World War, and especially since the Second. There has always, as we have seen earlier, been a division between Russia and Western Europe, and although Christianity was a link between the two it never completely united them. The Greek Orthodox Church in the east never felt itself close to the churches of the west. Now even this link is weakened, for communism favours atheism. It is, many feel, a 'religion' itself, and although freedom of worship is allowed in Soviet Russia, Christianity has been discouraged. This has also been true in countries which have come under communist control like Poland and Czechoslovakia, though in these countries most of the people did not belong to the Greek Orthodox Church but to Roman Catholic and Protestant churches, which have shown a great deal of resistance to communism.

The rise of communism has divided Europe in more ways than through religion, however. Italy no less than France now suffers from a bitter internal division, because of the rise of a strong communist party. Disagreements with communist Russia have prevented the making of peace treaties with Germany, Austria and Hungary after 1945. This means discontent and uncertainty, which are always dangerous. In Germany's case the situation is especially dangerous, for not only has the country been split into two parts, but its chief city and former capital, Berlin, lies in Russian-controlled eastern Germany, connected to western Germany only by a narrow 'corridor' across Russian-held territory. Furthermore, Berlin itself is divided into two, with the Russians in one part, East Berlin, and the British, Americans and French in the other.

How dangerous all this can be was shown in 1948 when Russia closed the corridor to the city, thus facing West Berlin with starvation. It seemed impossible for the British, Americans and French to stay in West Berlin any longer, but instead of withdrawing they decided to supply food and other necessities, even fuel, by air. This led to the famous 'air lift', the most astonishing thing of its kind in history, with hundreds of aeroplanes flying back and forth above the corridor day and night. For over a year, from June, 1948, to September, 1949, the planes flew until Russia opened the corridor again. In 1949 two German republics were created, with Bonn as capital of democratic West Germany. East Germany is a communist state, and remains actually controlled by Russia. In all this Canada has a direct interest, not only because the peace of Europe is critically important to her, as it is to every country, but because Canadian troops are part of the forces stationed in western Germany.

The division of Germany is not the only danger spot in Europe. The relations of France and Germany are another older, but still serious problem. After being attacked in 1870 and in the two world wars of 1914 and 1939 by Germany, it is not surprising that France is fearful of German strength if the German army





Courtesy Miller Services

THE BERLIN AIR LIFT

An R.A.F. Hastings, one of Britain's largest freight aircraft, is loaded with coal for Berlin.

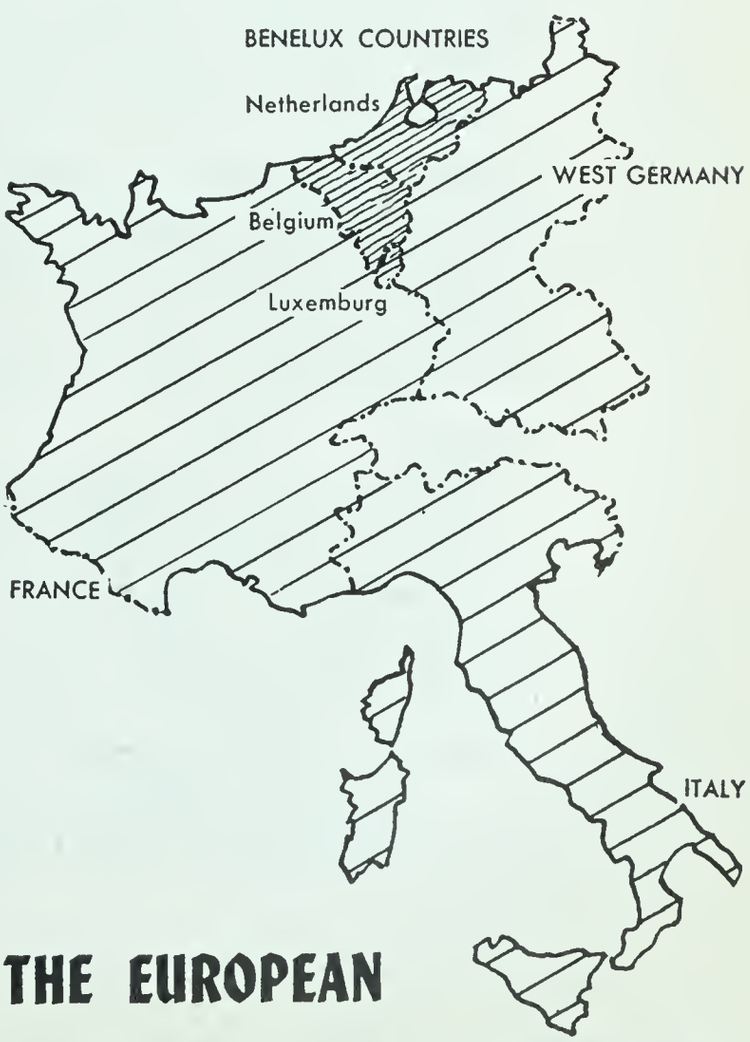
should be built up again, even though the troops of West Germany would be needed to help defend western Europe if these lands were attacked by Russia. France and Germany have also a serious cause of dispute in the valley of the River Saar, which is one of Europe's richest coal fields and which lies in the borderland between them. This area has several times been passed back and forth between the two countries. After the First World War the Saar was put under the League of Nations for fifteen years. In 1935, after a vote of its people, it was re-united with Germany, but in 1947, after the Second World War, it voted for an economic union with France. This put it in a somewhat independent position, but with France in control of its industries. The arrangement cannot be a permanent solution, and may give rise to serious

trouble, since both France and western Germany feel very strongly about it.

Another danger spot which has over and over again made trouble is Trieste, a most important city and port on the Adriatic Sea. Italy and her neighbours have many times quarrelled about it, and since the Second World War it has aroused the bitterest feelings between Yugoslavia and Italy. In 1947, it was made a 'Free Territory' under the control of the United Nations, but this also was not a permanent solution. In 1953 Trieste was again the scene of violence and bitter street fighting, and the future there is still not settled.

All these particular troubles were made worse by the economic effects of the Second World War – the destruction of factories and buildings, the need to get people back to work and to get trade started again. Even the strongest countries like Britain found themselves on the verge of bankruptcy. In 1947 the situation was very serious. Had things got worse, it is hard to tell what the results might have been—communism, revolution, ruin in some of the worst hit lands. At this point, however, the United States came forward with an offer to provide aid in the form of food, fuel, raw materials, and equipment to those countries which would accept it, on the condition that these countries would unite in planning their economic reconstruction.

This 'Marshall Plan' (called after General George Marshall, then the American Secretary of State), was one of the most generous offers ever made by any country, even if it was also in the interest of the United States to see that democratic Western Europe



THE EUROPEAN STEEL AND COAL COMMUNITY

did not collapse. Sixteen countries accepted Marshall Aid—Great Britain, France, the Netherlands, Belgium, Luxemburg, Italy, Iceland, Denmark, Norway, Greece, Turkey, Austria, Eire, West Germany, Switzerland and Portugal. Czechoslovakia and perhaps other countries of central Europe would probably have agreed to the Marshall Plan as well, if Russia had not objected – and Soviet troops were close at hand. In 1948 aid began to go to those countries which had accepted it, and in the next four years there was a great improvement in their condition. The Marshall Plan may have been a turning point in Europe's history, for if countries like France, Italy and western Germany had gone into economic ruin and their governments had fallen, communism would almost certainly have spread rapidly across western Europe.

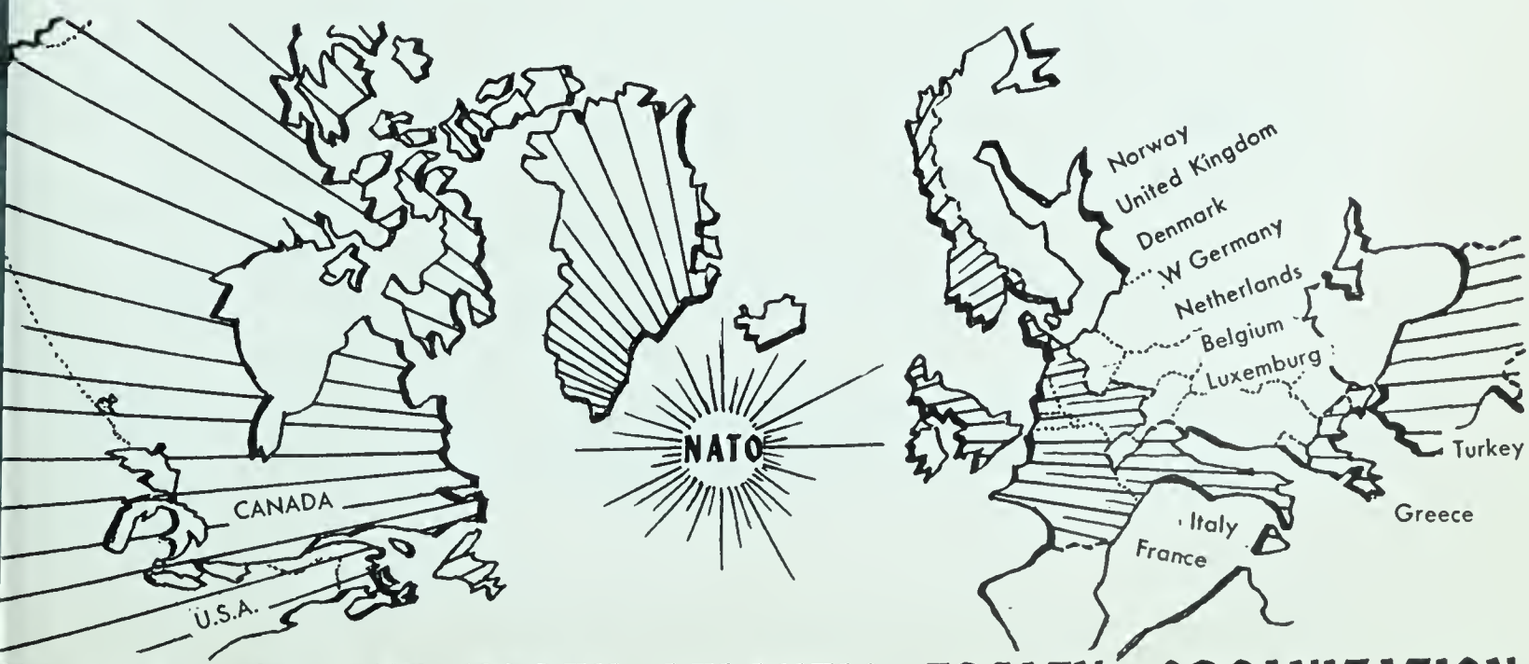
Just about this time, in 1947-8, there also began several organizations whose aim it was to bring countries in western Europe into more co-operation. One, the Organization for European Economic Co-operation (O.E.E.C.), resulted from the Marshall Plan, since the countries which accepted Marshall Aid had to come together to plan what they needed. Another, the Economic Commission for Europe (E.C.E.) was set up by the United Nations. This is an unusual body, because Russia and some of her dependent, communist ruled allies or 'satellite' countries are members as well. One of its chief activities is to collect information about economic conditions in Europe. In 1949, also, there was set up a 'Council of Europe' with its centre at Strasbourg, and it was hoped that this would grow into a kind of general parliament for western Europe.

Perhaps the most important organization of all came in 1952, when the European Steel and Coal Community (E.S.C.) came into being. This resulted from the Schuman Plan, called after the French statesman who proposed it. Under this plan, six nations, France, Western Germany, Italy and the 'Benelux' countries (Belgium, the Netherlands and Luxemburg) agreed by treaty to set up an organization to control their steel production and did away with tariffs on steel products among themselves. If this sig-

nificant economic agreement works successfully, it may have very important results in encouraging co-operation in other ways. Already, before this, the three Benelux countries had joined in a customs union which eliminated tariffs between them. These are hopeful signs that the evils of national division are lessening in western Europe.

The threat from Russia and the serious problem of defence also brought co-operation in western Europe, and in this Canada and the United States played an important part. In 1949 the North Atlantic Treaty was signed, and the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) was begun. One of the first suggestions for this came from Mr. St. Laurent, then Canada's Secretary of State for External Affairs. In NATO eleven European countries, Great Britain, France, Italy, Holland, Belgium, Luxemburg, Denmark, Norway, Portugal, Greece and Turkey joined with the United States and Canada to plan for defence. A NATO Council was set up in Paris, and General Eisenhower was appointed the first Supreme Commander of the NATO forces. Plans were also begun to bring West Germany into the defence of western Europe in some way so that she would be able to co-operate with France and her western neighbours.

What will come out of all this? Will the nations of western Europe find ways of overcoming their old divisions and co-operating with one another? And what kind of organization can they



NATIONS OF THE NORTH ATLANTIC TREATY ORGANIZATION

develop so that they can work together? Have they, in fact, already started on the right road? These are very difficult questions, and we cannot expect easy answers to them. Nevertheless in 1952 President Truman gave it as his opinion that "Europe has moved faster towards integration in the last five years than in the previous five hundred." Napoleon and Hitler had tried to unite Europe by force. They were both defeated. Today Europe's people realize that wars cannot unite Europe; that instead they could destroy her civilization; and that only through co-operation, however difficult, can Europe find an answer to her old problems of unity and division. Perhaps out of these hopes and fears new solutions will come. And so as Canada looks across the Atlantic at Europe, at least some of the signs on the horizon are encouraging.

Learn by Doing

1. Discuss the reasons for Russia's lack of trade with the rest of the world. (2, a)
2. Discuss the importance of the sea upon the development of Western Europe. (2, a)
3. Have committees discuss the effect of the following factors on the climate of Europe: (a) water; (b) winds; (c) latitude; (d) altitude. (2, a)
4. Have committees prepare brief reports on the following industries of Europe: (a) farming; (b) fishing; (c) mining; (d) manufacturing. (2, a)
5. Ask pupils to report to the class on the following invasions of Europe: (a) the Celts; (b) the Mongols and Tartars; (c) the Huns; (d) the Slavs; (e) the Turks. (2, b)
6. Discuss the statement "There are no pure races or nationalities in Europe today". (2, b)
7. Examine maps of Europe in 1815, 1914, 1920 and 1950. Discuss the weaknesses in the national divisions of Europe made at these times. (2, b)
8. Conduct a class discussion on the contribution of Christianity to the development of Western Europe. (3, a)
9. Divide the class into *four* committees and report briefly on the contributions of Europe in the fields of: (a) music; (b) science; (c) art; (d) religion. (3)
10. Have pupils write a paragraph entitled "Who am I?" on one of the following men and have the other members of the class guess the answer: (a) Aristotle; (b) Shakespeare; (c) Luther; (d) Columbus; (e) da Gama; (f) Newton; (g) Marconi; (h) Wagner.(3)
11. Prepare an imaginary radio interview with Albert Schweitzer. (Look up the information in reference books.)
12. Conduct a class discussion on Europe's chief problems and propose ways of solving them. (4)
13. Have committees report on the following danger spots of Europe: (a) the division of Germany; (b) the Saar Valley; (c) Trieste. (4)

Facts to Know

1. Europe may be divided into two parts, European Russia and Western Europe. On a map find the line which divides the two. (2, a)

2. (a) Compare Russia's great plains with the prairies of Western Canada. (2, a)
   (b) On a map of Russia mark on its main water systems and resources.

3. On a map of Western Europe mark: (a) the main rivers and the cities located on them; (b) the Alps, Caledonean and Alpine mountain ranges. (2, a)

4. Prepare a map of Europe marking on the areas where the following languages predominate: (a) Italic and Romance languages; (b) Teutonic; (c) Celtic; (d) Slavonic; (e) Hellenic. (2, b)

5. Outline the main contributions made to civilization by each of the following: (a) the Romans; (b) Ancient Greece; (c) Christianity. (3)

6. Outline the great contributions made by (a) Louis Pasteur; (b) Leonardo Da Vinci. (3, b)

7. Indicate the way in which the invention of machines in Britain during the industrial revolution affected European civilization. (3, b)

8. List some of the political ideas which developed as a result of Britain's contribution to democracy. (3, c)

9. What contribution did Europe make toward the furthering of education? (3, c)

10. (a) In what ways have the many small countries of Europe created problems? (4, b)
    (b) In what ways has communism added to Europe's problems?

11. Outline briefly the significance of each of the following: (a) the Marshall Plan; (b) the Organization for European Economic Co-operation; (c) the Economic Commission for Europe; (d) the Council of Europe; (e) the European Steel and Coal Community; (f) the North Atlantic Treaty Organization. (4, b)

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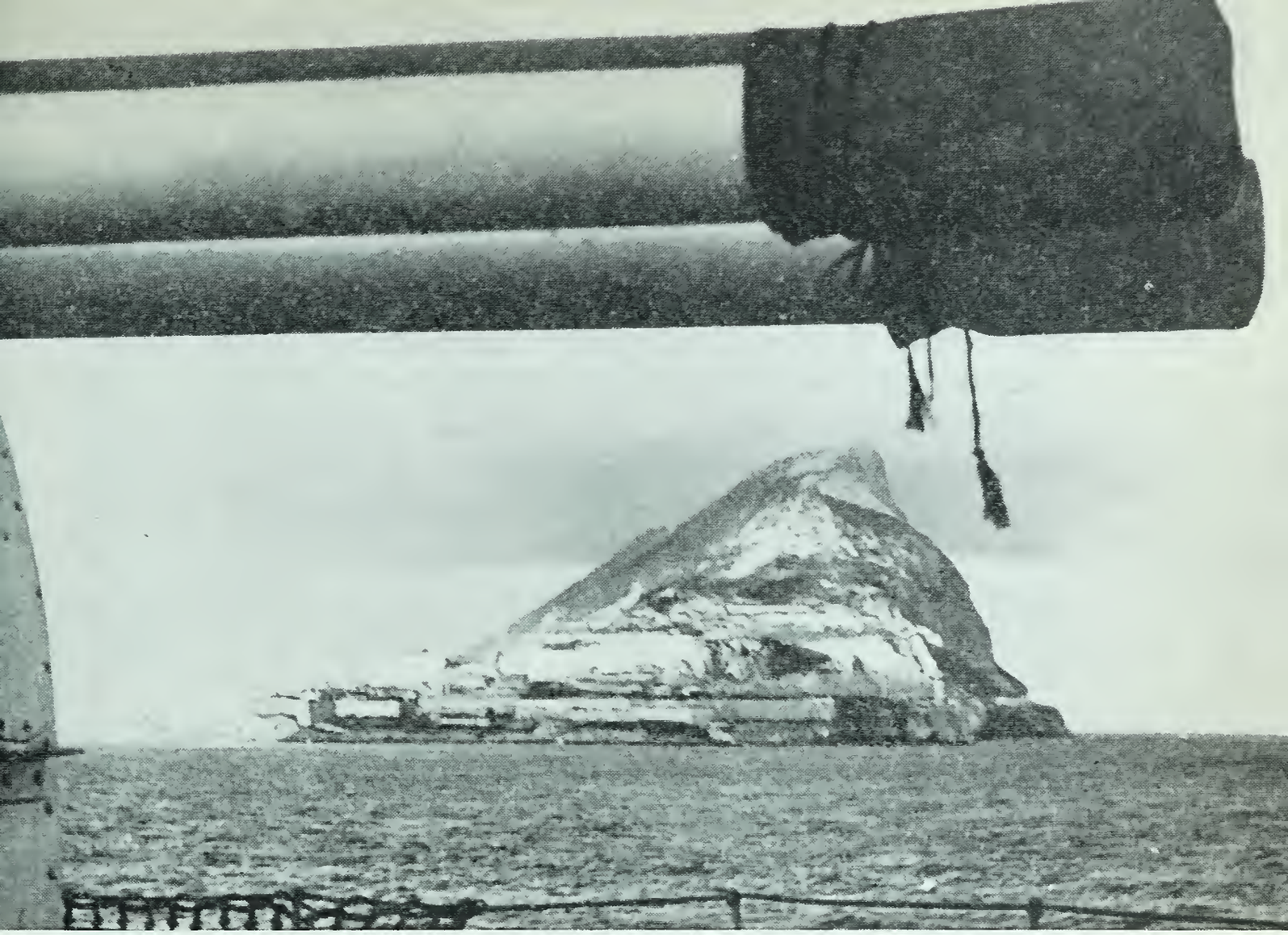
UNIT SEVEN

CANADA LOOKS ACROSS THE ATLANTIC AT THE MIDDLE EAST AND AFRICA

1. *North Africa and the Middle East*
2. *Nationalism in North Africa and the Middle East Today*
3. *Central and South Africa*
4. *Race and Nationalism in Central and South Africa*

At the western end of the Mediterranean stands the most famous rock in the world, Gibraltar; and opposite, across only twelve miles of water, lies the coast of Africa. Here, so thought the ancient Greeks, were the western limits of the world; and Gibraltar, with its opposing point on the African shore, they called the Pillars of Hercules.

Let us imagine that we are standing on the famous rock ourselves, but with a giant telescope through which we could see anything up to 4,000 miles, and let us swing it in a great arc from east to south. Eastward we could see to Iran and even to the borders of Afghanistan and Western Pakistan. Southward we could see across the Sahara Desert and the jungles of Central Africa, nearly



Courtesy Miller Services

GIBRALTAR, WITH THE GUNS OF THE CANADIAN WARSHIP H.M.C.S. PRINCE ROBERT IN THE FOREGROUND

to the tip of Africa. Perhaps we might even see Capetown and its Table Mountain, nearly 5,000 miles away.

Here in this great arc are the Middle East and Africa, the subjects of this unit. What, in this vast area, are the things which we, as Canadians, should look at especially? With its pyramids and ancient cities buried in the sand, its oil pipelines and jet airplanes winging across the desert, the story of the Middle East and Africa is as ancient as man himself, as modern as today's headlines.

1. North Africa and the Middle East

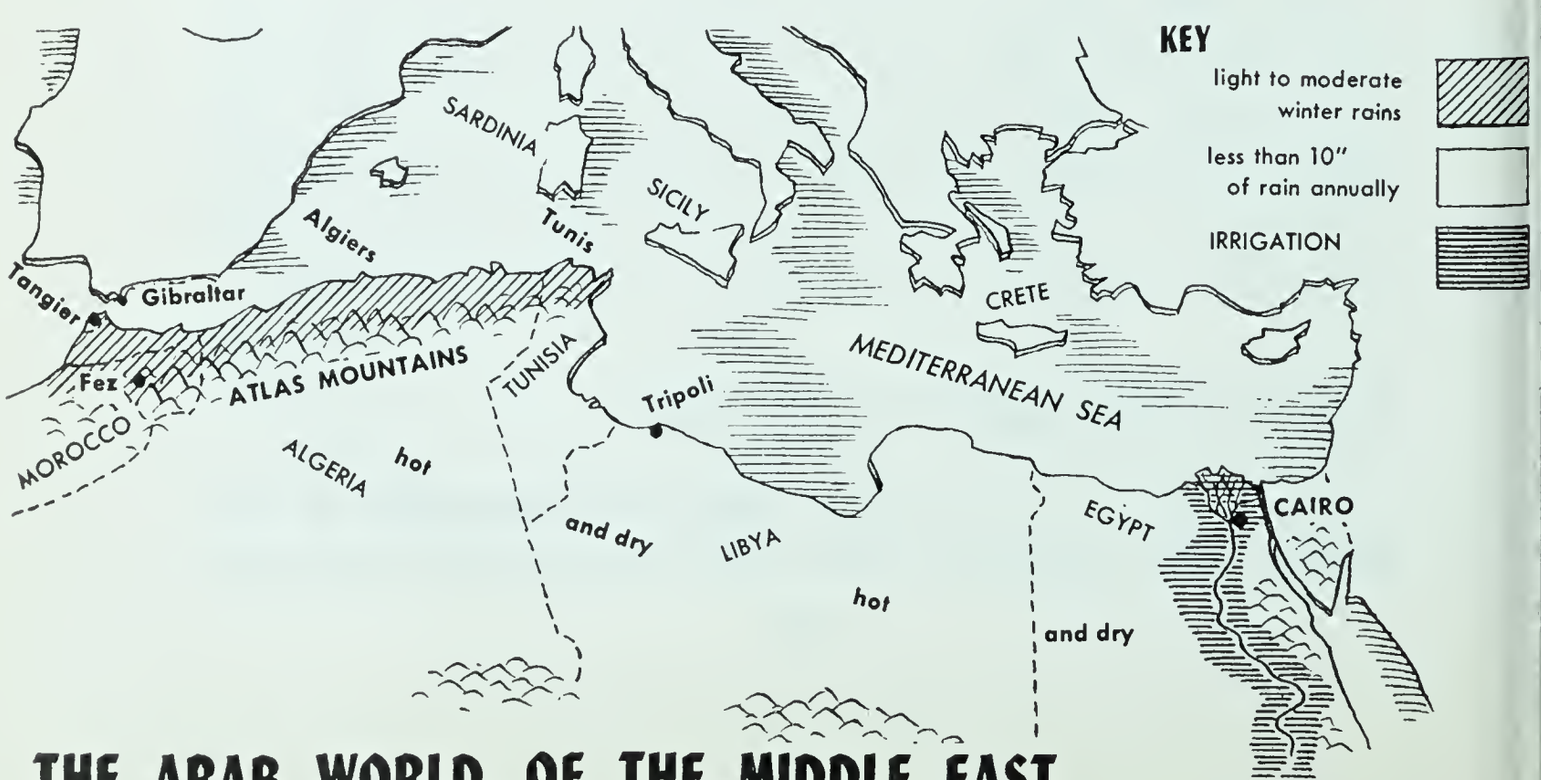
(a) The Age-Old Importance of the Middle East. Looking first at the Middle East, we are immediately

struck by the need of defining what we mean by that term. People used to speak of the Near East, the Middle East, and the Far East or Orient, and indeed these terms are still in use. The Far East meant, of course, the great land mass of eastern and central Asia, with the many islands lying off the mainland. This is what we have in mind when we speak of Asia and its peoples today. By the Near East was meant the region at the eastern end of the Mediterranean, which stretches from the Dardanelles and the Black Sea south through the Arabian peninsula. The northern part of this region, including what is now Turkey, was often called Asia Minor. Between the Near East and Far East lay the Middle East, the land where for centuries East and West had met — in spite of the famous lines of the English poet, Kipling:

East is East and West is West,
And never the 'twain shall meet.

Kipling meant, in fact, not that they would never touch each other, but rather that they would never become the same, and indeed the mingling of East and West in the Middle East seems to show that there was much in what he said.

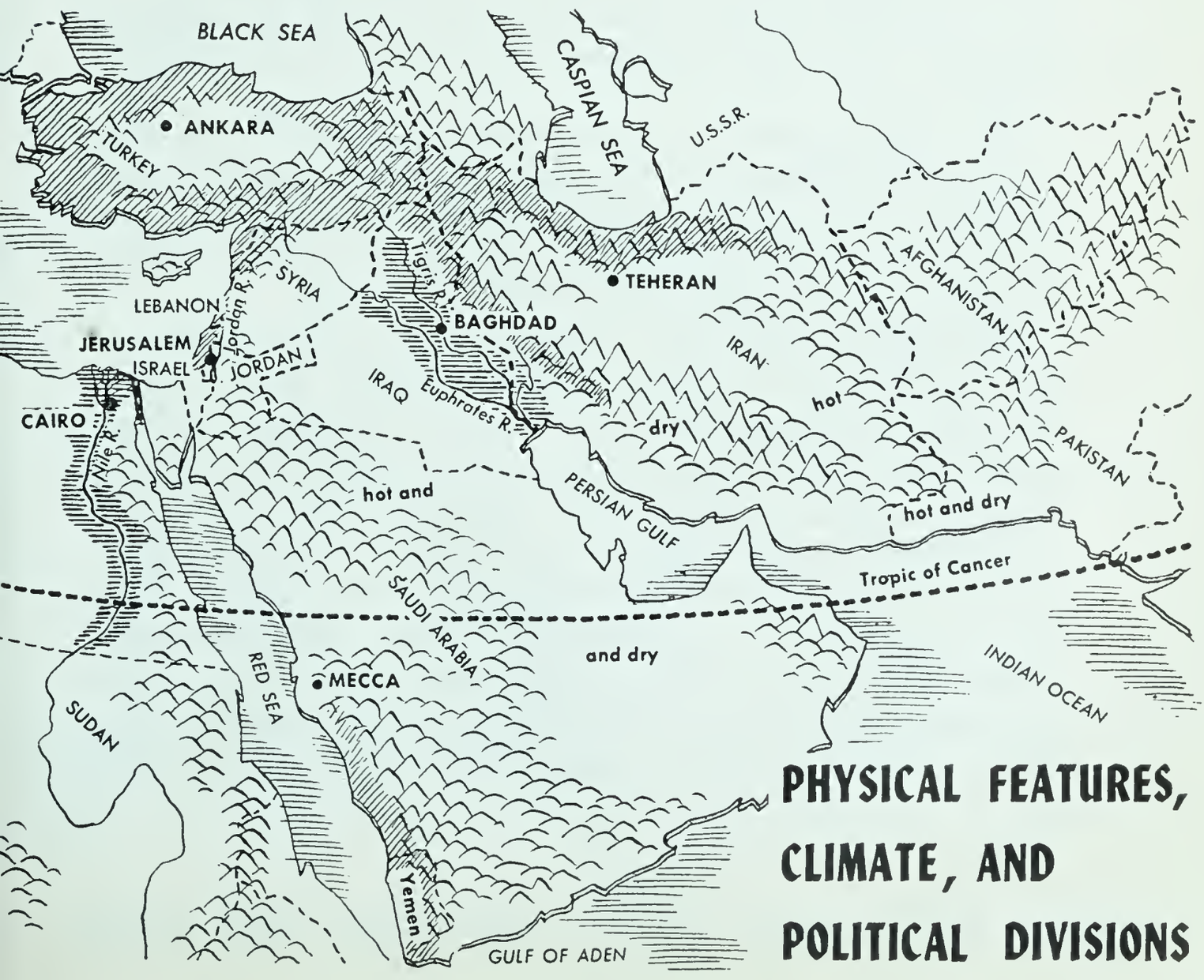
One still hears the terms Near East and Middle East, but during the Second World War the name Middle East moved westward, as you might say, and came to include the whole area. So today,



THE ARAB WORLD OF THE MIDDLE EAST

when we speak of the Middle East we can think of everything from Egypt eastward to the borders of Afghanistan and Pakistan, and this is the way we shall use the name. Sometimes even the northern coast of Africa from Egypt westward to Morocco seems to be included, since most of its people for centuries have belonged not to the European, nor to the Negro-African world, but rather to the Arab or Middle Eastern world. This coastal strip, however, we shall call North Africa.

This region of North Africa and the Middle East may not seem to have any very clear boundaries. Yet it has more than might appear at first sight. North Africa, of course, lies between the Mediterranean on the north and the world's largest desert, the Sahara—which makes an effective boundary line to the south. The Sahara, stretching from east to west for 3,200 miles and from north to south for 1,400 at its widest extent, is nearly as large as



PHYSICAL FEATURES, CLIMATE, AND POLITICAL DIVISIONS

the whole of Europe. Apparently it was not always so large, and much of its soil would be fertile today, if it had moisture. But for centuries it was an unmapped desert, its few paths and oases known only to wandering tribesmen who knew how to survive under its scorching sun and harsh winds. For centuries, indeed, Central and South Africa, behind this barrier, were completely unknown to Europe. North Africa, facing the Mediterranean, looked north and east, not south, and the Sahara was a far more effective barrier, dividing Africa into two parts, than the Atlantic was between Europe and America.

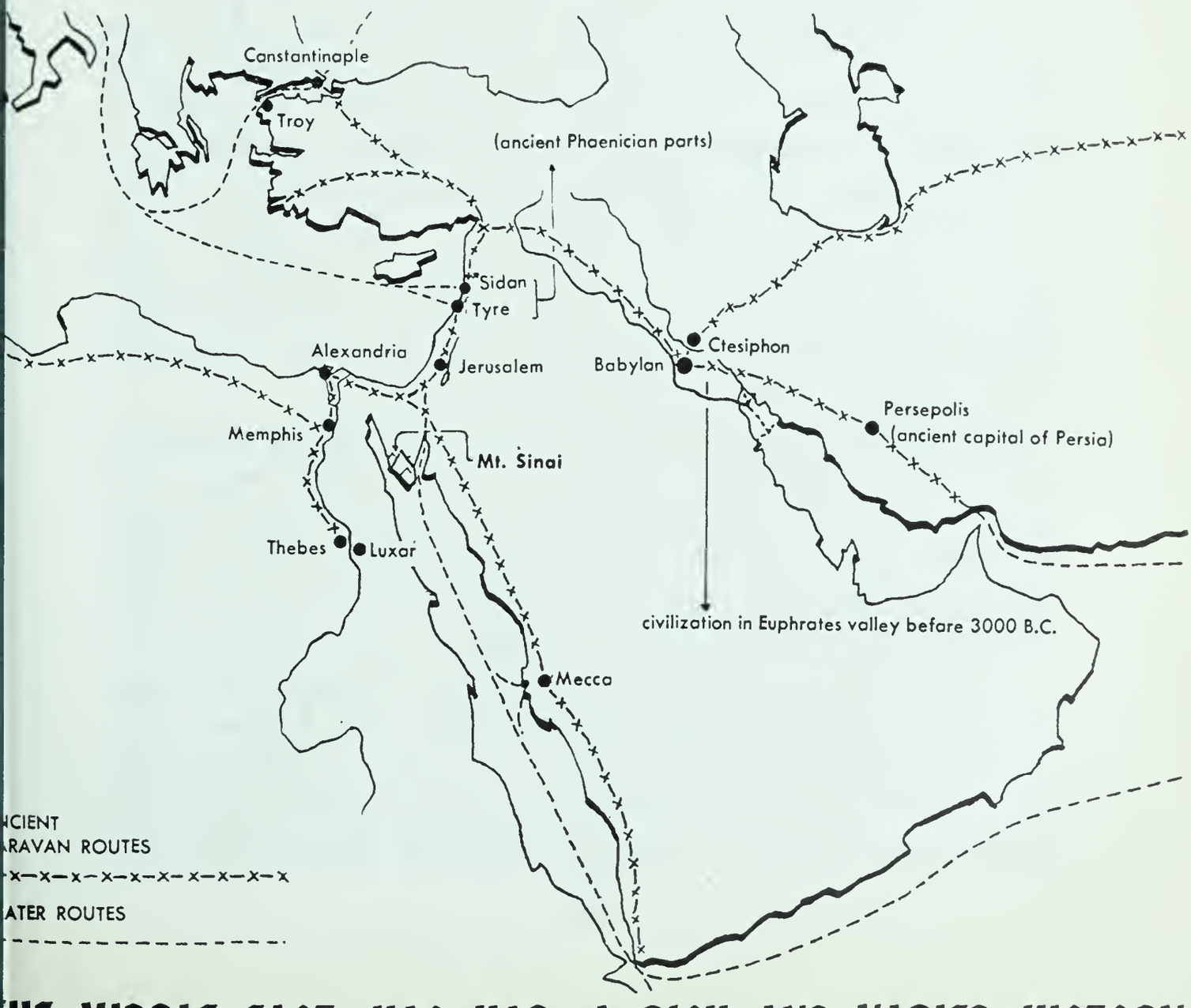
South of Egypt, the Nubian Desert, a continuation of the Sahara, serves to mark the limits of the Middle East. Further east again, Arabia and then Iran are bounded by the Indian Ocean, and by the deserts and mountains along the borders of Afghanistan and Pakistan. Even on the north the Middle East is marked off from Europe and Asia by the Black Sea, the high mountains of the Caucasus, the Caspian Sea, and beyond that by the highlands and deserts of eastern Iran. Thus it is after all a fairly well-defined area.

The special importance of the Middle East is not, however, in its boundaries. Rather it is that it lies at the meeting place of three continents, Europe, Asia and Africa, and can be entered from any of them. For thousands of years it has been the cradle of civilizations and the cross-roads of the world.

How many empires and civilizations have risen and fallen in the Middle East we shall probably never know. Some scholars have believed that civilization first started in Asia Minor, perhaps in the region of the Tigris and Euphrates. Long before 3,000 B.C., there were little city-states in this region, and about 2,100 B.C. as we have seen, the mighty empire and city of Babylon arose, only to be replaced by the Assyrians, who in turn, centuries later, were conquered by a new Babylonian empire under Nebuchadnezzar (604-561 B.C.). Then Babylon gave way to Persia, which for a time under Darius I (521-485 B.C.) ruled all the way from Egypt to India and tried to overrun Greece. Persia in turn was

conquered by Alexander the Great (356-323 B.C.) of Macedon in Greece, whose empire stretched from Egypt to India, and who founded Alexandria, in Egypt, which was for centuries one of the world's greatest centres of wealth and learning.

Through all these centuries, Egypt, whose known history goes back for more than 6,000 years, was flourishing in the valley of the Nile. By 3,000 B.C. the Egyptians were building the great pyramids, still one of the world's wonders, and their ideas and example were spreading through the eastern Mediterranean and Asia Minor. Through these centuries too we can follow the history of the Jews, as told in the Bible from the days of Abraham who left Ur in southern Babylonia to found a home in Palestine. Many other names are also spread across the pages of this ancient history



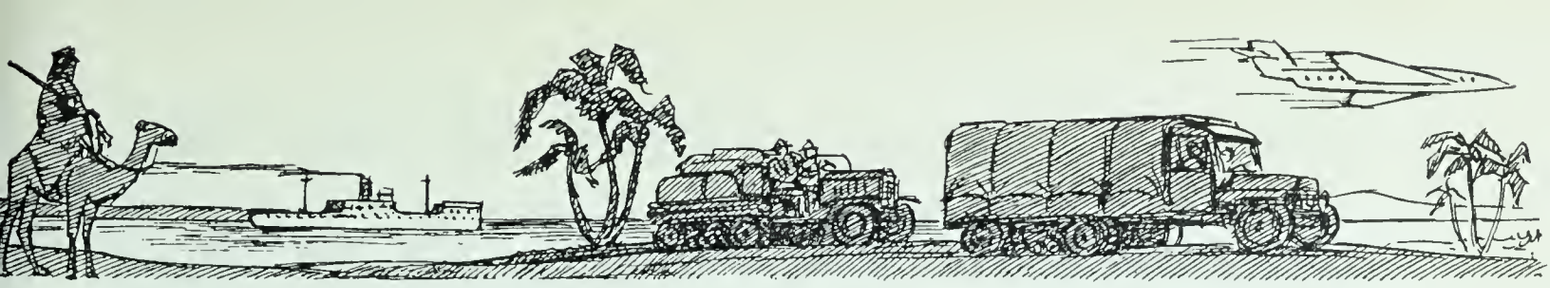
THE MIDDLE EAST HAS HAD A RICH AND VARIED HISTORY



of the Middle East, such as Troy whose wars with Greece are recounted in Homer's poems, and the Phoenicians (the Canaanites of the Bible and the greatest traders of the ancient world) who brought spices and perfumes from the Far East to their cities of Tyre and Sidon, and sailed all through the Mediterranean, and even as far as Britain centuries before the Romans got there. For long years as well, the Arabs about whom we shall have much more to say, played a great part in this Middle Eastern world.

The Middle East has been the centre not only of civilizations but also of religions. Many of them have disappeared, but three have come down into our modern world: Christianity, Mohammedanism (Islam) and Judaism. In the northeast corner of Egypt just east of the Red Sea stands Mount Sinai. Here, according to the Bible story, Moses received the Ten Commandments, which for centuries have influenced hundreds of millions of people. Only a few hundred miles south lies Mecca, the birthplace of Mohammed, and a holy city for all Moslems or Mohammedans. And only a short distance north of Mount Sinai is Jerusalem, a holy city not only for Christians, but for Moslems and Jews besides. Thus the Middle East has been a cradle of ideas whose importance in our own day can scarcely be over-estimated.

The Middle East also has been a crossroads of the continents. If you look at the map you can see why this has been so for thousands of years. Through the ages, civilizations, ideas, empires, and trade have spread and swayed back and forth across it. From the eastern Mediterranean through the Red Sea or the Persian Gulf, land and water routes led to India and the famous spice islands of the Pacific. Arab traders were in India long before Vasco da Gama reached there from Europe in 1498 – the *Arabian Nights* stories like Sinbad the Sailor give us some idea of this. Eastward from the Mediterranean went also the caravan routes with their camel trains, through such cities as Baghdad, Teheran and Tash-



kent, and far across the deserts of central Asia to China. These were the routes followed by Marco Polo, who journeyed overland from Europe in the 13th century, and they had been used for centuries long before he or Europe knew about them. To the Mediterranean's eastern ports — Constantinople, Haifa, Beirut, Alexandria and the others — came also ships of cities like Venice, Genoa and Marseilles looking for cargoes and trade for Western Europe. Into Africa across the Red Sea Arab traders went as well, carrying their goods and their Moslem religion, and bringing back ivory and, even more important, slaves. This was perhaps the oldest slave-trading route in the world.

Today, even more than ever, the Middle East is a crossroads. Instead of the galleys of Venice, steel freighters and passenger liners sail the Mediterranean, for here is the shortest sea route to India and the Orient. Instead of the ancient portage at the north end of the Red Sea, the Suez Canal carries as many as 5,000 vessels each year through its 103 miles of water highway. Instead of caravans, pipelines and motor trucks cross the deserts, and above them some of the world's main airways follow in the same directions as traders and travellers have done for centuries. The French have a saying —the more things change, the more they are the same—and in many ways this is certainly true of the Middle East.

(b) Middle Eastern Lands and Resources. In their geography the Middle East and North Africa are a region of great extremes. Vast stretches of barren rock and sandy desert, mountain barriers and fertile valleys, scorching heat and bitter cold — these and many other contrasts may be found in this ancient homeland of peoples and races. Perhaps the deserts are what one notices first on the map — the Sahara and Libyan in North Africa, the Nubian in south Egypt, the great deserts of Arabia, the Syrian desert, the deserts of Iraq and Iran, and other smaller ones. Altogether they take up by far the greater part of the entire area.

With water, the deserts, in places, as the Bible says "rejoice and

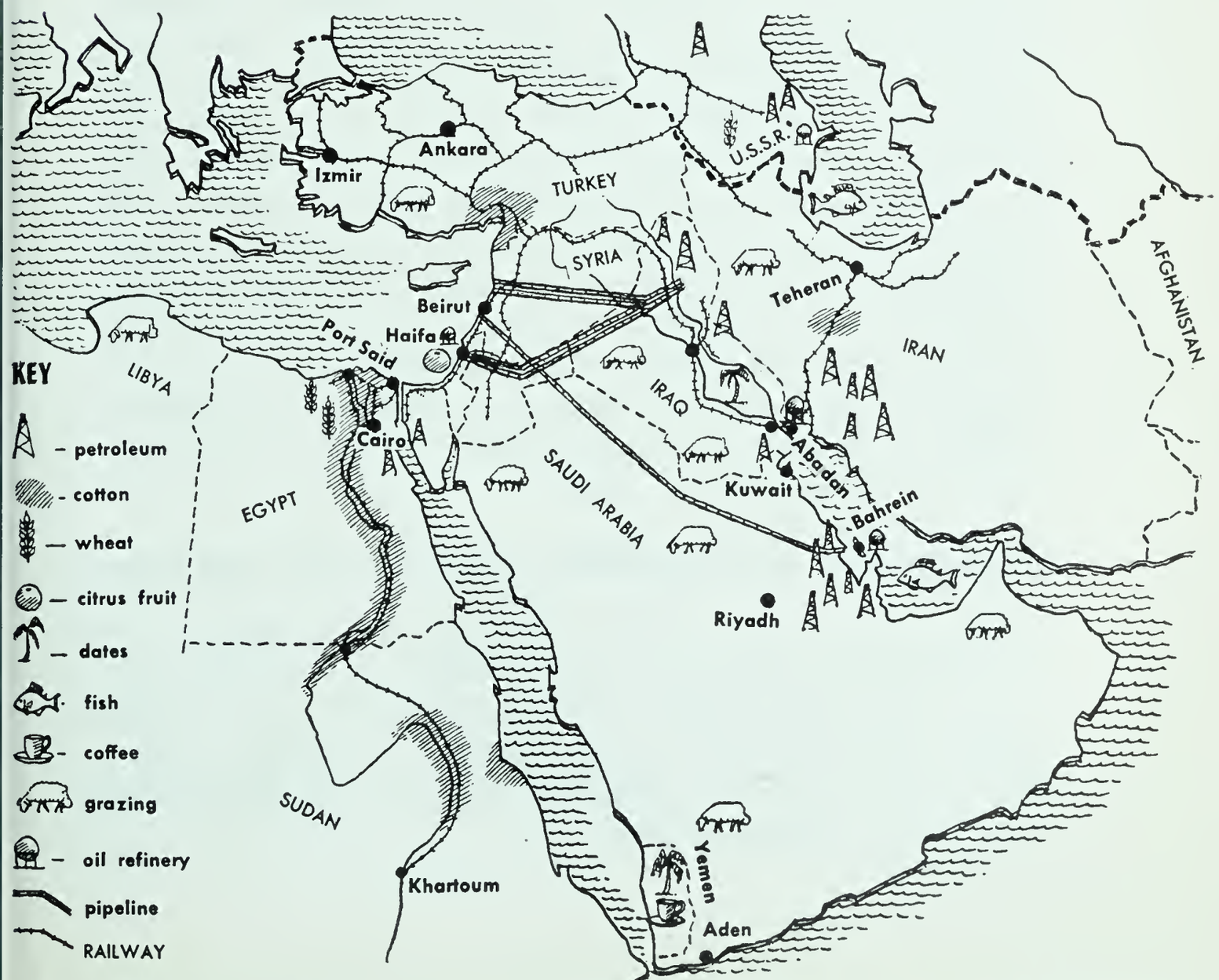
blossom as the rose". Where irrigation can be used this is possible, but with less than ten inches of rainfall per year, and often as little as two or three, there are great areas where little or nothing can be done for agriculture. The deserts in fact creep in on the fertile land, and this has gone on for a very long time, so that ancient cities, where thousands of people once lived, now lie buried in the sand. Undoubtedly man himself in his ignorance and carelessness was responsible for some of this by his destruction of forests and his failure to prevent soil erosion. In some places conservation may still do much to restore these wasted lands, especially in Iraq, on the once well-watered plains of the Tigris and Euphrates.

The poverty of the land for agriculture must, however, remain a problem. Of Iran, about two-thirds is covered by salty and sandy desert; of Egypt's 383,000 square miles, less than 14,000 are habitable; most of Libya is a great rocky table land covered in many places with drifting sand; much of the interior of Turkey is suitable only for grazing, and part of it is almost desert; eastern Syria is mostly desert. In the whole Middle East not more than five per cent of the land is really suitable for agriculture. Herding is thus widely practised in the broad, semi-barren areas, and many a nomadic tribe has little other wealth than the goats that supply it with milk, meat and skins, and hair for coarsely woven clothing.

We should not, however, leave this as the whole picture. Most of the Middle East's people live by agriculture, and some of its lands which have been tilled for thousands of years are still among the best in the world, even though lack of water and soil erosion are terribly serious problems in many parts. Most remarkable of all, of course, is Egypt's valley of the Nile, where there is scarcely any rainfall, but where the yearly flooding of the great river brings both moisture and a deposit of rich mud. Without them the Nile valley would be a desert. With them for thousands of years it has been a garden. Irrigation and methods of water control have been practised for centuries, and in this century modern improvements have been made with such engineering achievements as the great dam at Assuan. In this warm climate, with scientific irrigation,

two and three crops a year are obtained on much of Egypt's cultivated land – in particular wheat, corn, cotton, rice and sugar cane. The province of Fayum in the Libyan desert just west of the Nile is one of Egypt's wheat farming areas, and in the Libyan desert are also five large oases irrigated by water drawn from underground.

Besides the valley of the Nile the greatest area of usable land in the Middle East is the famous 'Fertile Crescent' which stretches like a horseshoe through the Tigris and Euphrates valleys of Iraq, around the north side of the Syrian desert and southward through the coastal regions of Syria, Lebanon and Palestine to Egypt. The fertile soil along the Tigris and Euphrates is as productive as that of the Nile, where irrigation and drainage works are maintained. Oranges, peaches, pomegranates, olives, figs, sugar and cereals are



THE MIDDLE EAST : CITIES, RESOURCES, & TRANSPORT

among the Middle East's products of agriculture, with here and there special crops like roses for perfume in Egypt, and cotton, its chief export.

Manufactured products in the Middle East and North Africa have been mostly hand made, and of these its beautiful fabrics, rugs, metal work, leather work and pottery have become world famous. Minerals, such as lead, zinc, iron and copper are found at many points; for instance, in Turkey, Lebanon and in Tunisia, but they are scattered and not in great quantities. Manufacturing will no doubt increase in the Middle East, and this will be very helpful but it seems unlikely to grow into large scale mechanized industry.

Finally, there is one very old but very new resource — oil. Very old because it was known to the ancient world; in biblical times men by the waters of Babylon used oily substances in caulking their boats. Very new because only in the modern world has it become really important. In the Middle East — in Iran, Iraq, Saudi Arabia and around the Persian Gulf — lies one of the greatest, perhaps the greatest oil field in the world. To Beirut and Haifa on the Mediterranean, or to Kuwait, Bahrein and other points on the Persian Gulf, come the tankers for the liquid gold of the oil wells, which has flowed sometimes for hundreds of miles through pipelines strung across the desert. No other resource has made so great a difference to the Middle East in the twentieth century. Oil has brought roads, engineers, aircraft, new industries, hundreds of millions of dollars of unexpected wealth, undreamt of opportunities — and serious problems besides.

2. Nationalism in North Africa and the Middle East Today

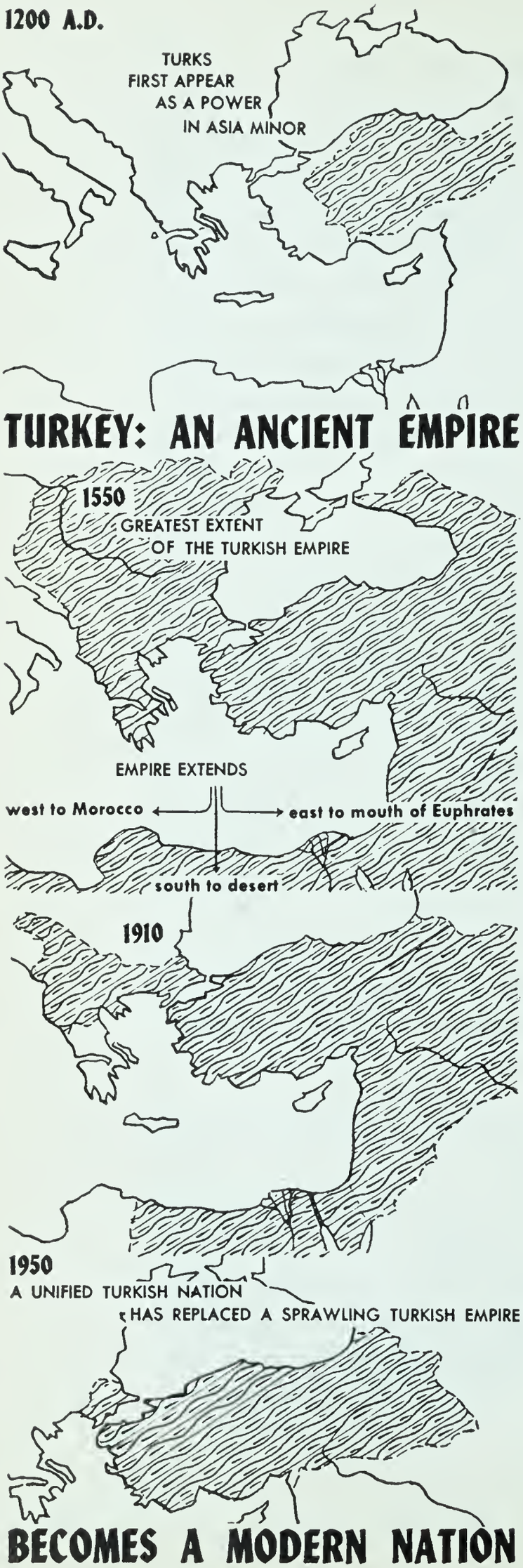
Oil and nationalism are, probably, the two most disturbing influences in the Middle East today. Both have come in during the twentieth century; and of the two, nationalism is even more important than oil, because it is found everywhere from Morocco to Iran. Its effects, in this part of the world, are not easy to sum up as good or bad.

We have already seen that Europe is suffering from too much nationalism. And yet, we have also seen that nationalism is by no means always a bad thing. Loyalty and love of country may raise people to the finest efforts, without necessarily breeding distrust, hatred and suspicion of others. The world, in fact, seems unable to get along either with, or without, nationalism — like the man in the old Indian story who could live neither with nor without the wife whom the gods had given him. The real question is, will nationalism be a helpful or a harmful thing? And in the Middle East this question is a very serious one.

(a) Turkey a Modern Nation. Turkey is one of the best examples of the good effects of nationalism, not only in the Middle East but in the modern world. For centuries, the Turk was feared and hated in the Middle East and Europe. It was in the 13th century, that the fierce, barbaric tribe of 'Osmanli' or Ottoman Turks came from central Asia into Asia Minor, adopted Islam with fierce zeal, and began to spread their conquests in almost every direction. The whole Arab world of the Middle East and North Africa fell under their control, as well as the Balkans and Hungary in Europe. In 1453 they conquered Constantinople (now Istanbul) and twice they were turned back at the very gates of Vienna (1526 and 1683). But in the nineteenth century this Turkish rule began to crumble. In 1829, for example, Greece won her independence from Turkey, and the whole western world rejoiced. By the end of the century, the Turkish empire, ruled by its despotic Sultan, was seething with discontent.

The 'Sick Man of Europe' Turkey was called—and when in the First World War, Turkey joined Germany, the subject peoples still under Turkish rule rebelled. When the war ended, Turkey was stripped of her empire, and it was out of this that the new countries of the Middle East arose, as we shall see.

In the depths of her defeat Turkey fortunately had a leader, Mustafa Kemal, who in the next twenty years proved to be one of the outstanding statesmen of his day. Kemal and his loyal lieutenant, Ismet, belonged even before 1914 to a band of army of-



ficers and students, the 'Young Turks', who had forced the Sultan to make some reforms. They had been educated in Europe, and now they decided that they would revolutionize Turkey by turning it into a modern western nation, while at the same time keeping the best in Turkish life and appealing to the patriotism of the Turkish people.

In the 1920's and '30's sweeping changes were made. Even styles of dress were changed, and one of the most interesting and even amusing 'reforms' was the 'hat revolution', by which it was ordered that after a certain day no man should appear in public except in a western-type hat with a brim—the red fez which had been a mark of Ottoman citizenship, and the turban worn by those who had made a pilgrimage to holy Mecca, must go, But there were not enough hats to go around. European merchants rushed their old stocks to Turkey, and men even wore women's hats. "Walking the streets of Turkish towns that first season," says one writer, "one could see a virtual museum of men's hat styles of the past two generations." Turkish women, too, dropped the black veil worn in

public for centuries, though this was requested, not ordered, and women came out of their harems to take a prominent part in Turkish affairs.

But these outward changes were only the signs of deeper changes that affected every part of Turkish life. Probably most important was the complete separation of religion and government. Islam continued to be the religion of the Turkish people, but religious freedom was granted to all, and many other things in daily life ceased to be controlled by Mohammedan laws and rules. A new system of laws was brought in, based on ideas drawn from Switzerland, Italy and Germany; and a new system of education was set up, in the attempt to teach everyone. The western alphabet was ordered to be used instead of the Arabic form of writing and printing. By a certain day, all newspapers and books had to be printed in it, and old and young had to learn it. The European calendar was brought in. The government, also, made plans to encourage agriculture and industry, and to improve the economic life of the country.

Through all these revolutionary changes the Turkish people followed Mustafa Kemal loyally. He became the national hero and was given the name Ataturk, the 'Father of the Turks.' When he died in 1938 Ismet continued his work. Most remarkable of all, perhaps, is what happened after the Second World War. Kemal's government was a dictatorship, but it promised that when the country became ready for it a more democratic government would be allowed. Usually such promises are not carried out, yet after the Second World War opposition parties were permitted, and in the election of 1950 the party of Kemal and Ismet allowed itself to be voted out of power. This peaceful change was a triumph for the Turkish people and nation. More than anything else it showed that, instead of the old despotic Turkey of the Sultans, a new democratic Turkey had arisen.

(b) The Young Arab Nations. When we turn to the Arab countries, nationalism seems confusing. Partly this is because of their number: Egypt is actually on Arab land; there are also



Courtesy Miller Services

Turkey—Strange Mixture of Old and New.

Saudi Arabia and Yemen and some smaller states in the Arabian Peninsula; and there are Iraq, north of the Persian Gulf, and Syria, Lebanon, and Jordan near the Mediterranean. Partly, too, it is because nationalism in these Arab countries is so new. None of them became independent until after the First World War, and the last three only after the Second World War. First, therefore, let us look not at the countries but at the Arabs themselves, for they are a proud and ancient people, and some understanding of them will make the picture clearer.

On July 16th, 622, there fled from the Arabian city where he had been born, a man who had been opposed and spurned by his people because of his ideas. The man was Mohammed, already over fifty years of age. The city was Mecca, now a holy city to all the Mohammedans. By 632, when he died, Mohammed had united Arabia which till then had been torn with feuds and strife. A century later his followers had spread westward through Egypt and North Africa to Spain, northward into Asia Minor, and eastward through Persia to the very gates of India. And so a great Arab world had taken shape.

In this way Islam (which means in Arabic, submission to God and his divine will) was born and became one of the world's great religions. The Koran, Islam's sacred book, teaches that there is one God, that idols must not be worshipped, that all men are equal, that women should be honoured, and that holy books and holy



Courtesy Miller Services

A modern ferry now links the European and Asiatic shores of Istanbul, Turkey's capital.

prophets such as Moses and Jesus should be reverenced. Mohammedanism inspired fanatical zeal. "There is no God but Allah, and Mohammed is His Prophet", became the guiding thought of all Mohammed's followers.

The rise of Mohammedanism is, without doubt, the most important fact in Arab history, though it has spread far beyond the Arabs, and even though some Arabs are still not Mohammedans: Lebanon, for example, has many Christians. But through Mohammed's influence, the Arabs were united and inspired by a common culture. Today it helps to hold them together in spite of all their differences and divisions—and these are very serious. Mohammedanism has become divided into sects, often with bitter differences. Geographical features have also caused division, especially the deserts, such as the Syrian desert separating Iraq from Syria, Lebanon and Jordan. The desert has also divided the desert dwellers and wandering tribes from the people of the towns and cities. Feuds among local leaders have often been serious and even the differences in language between the various forms of Arabic have often been a barrier. In spite of all this, however, the Arabs feel they have something in common. There is an old Arabic saying, which still has much truth: "My brother and I will fight my cousin, but we and my cousin will fight any stranger."

It is into this Arab world that nationalism has come since the First World War, with a tremendous effect, often like a series of explosions. During the war of 1914-18, British leaders, including the famous soldier and scholar, Colonel T. E. Lawrence, 'Lawrence of Arabia', appealed to them to join the Allies, and so throw off the rule of the hated Turk. With British aid, this Arab revolt succeeded.

After the war, however, the Arabs found that they were still divided, and that the promises of self-government which had been made to them were not immediately carried out. Under the League of Nations, France, for example, was given a 'mandate' over Syria, which allowed her to keep troops there and control the government. Britain was given a mandate over Palestine, and

through a treaty with Egypt also continued to keep troops in that country to guard the vital Suez Canal. There were reasons for these things. The Arabs were unused to self-government, and perhaps some period of outside control was needed before complete independence could be given. This seemed especially true of Egypt and the Suez Canal, for the Canal is a great international waterway, and Britain, which has a special interest in it, both for trade and defence, could not be expected to give up the right of guarding it unless she was sure that it would not fall into unfriendly hands.

But to the Arabs these delays in giving complete self-government meant that the promises made to them were being broken, and that Britain and France were only trying to hang on to their power and protect their oil interests. Fiery nationalist leaders could always use these arguments against foreign control or interference in their countries—'imperialism', they called it—and could stir up feeling, especially among people who were already discontented because of hunger or poverty. So through the whole period following the First World War there were many crises and outbreaks of violence. Out of these the Arab countries gradually evolved, though Syria and Lebanon did not become independent until 1945, and Jordan not until 1949. Egypt's case was a special one, for though she gained more independence by a treaty with the British in 1936, Britain was still allowed by the treaty to keep troops in the Suez Canal Zone. Among the new Arab countries Saudi Arabia was one of the most interesting, for it was created by a remarkable leader, Ibn Saud, who succeeded in the most difficult task of uniting the tribes and divisions of almost the whole Arabian Peninsula. His career was a real adventure story, and when he died in 1953 he was recognized as a figure of world importance.



THE MOHAMMEDAN WORLD

Thus the Arab countries are still new. They have scarcely had time to find their feet, and it is little wonder that their nationalism has been extreme, sometimes violent. They have serious problems, and some bitter memories and grievances, especially their grievance over Israel about which we shall say more later.

The Arab nations are therefore passing through a difficult and uncertain period. We must not forget, however, that the Arabs have had a long and remarkable history with two great periods of civilization. The first lasted for several centuries B.C. The second came with the rise of Islam and endured all through the period of the Middle Ages in Europe. During this time the Arabs had great centres of culture at Alexandria, Baghdad, Damascus, and many other places. In medicine, mathematics and science they were far ahead of Europe. They gathered all they could of ancient Greek and Hindu learning, added much of their own, and wrote books on such subjects as algebra, astronomy, and medicine, which were translated into Latin and used in Europe. With so great a history behind them, the Arabs should be capable again of playing an important part in the world.



(c) Israel, and the Clash of Arab and Jewish Nationalism. The little Jewish nation of Israel also owes its beginnings to the period of the First World War, though even before that time there had been a 'Zionist' movement with the idea of sometime creating a Jewish homeland. In 1917, the British government gave a pledge, the 'Balfour Declaration', to aid in "establishing in Palestine a national home for the Jewish people". Following the war Britain was given a mandate over Palestine. Jewish immigration came in, and the improvement of the country was tackled with great enthusiasm and remarkable success, aided by support from the British government and by money from Jews in various coun-

tries, especially the United States. Agriculture was improved by irrigation and other methods, industries started, a university begun, and the modern city of Tel Aviv built up on what had been waste land.

Unfortunately this fine accomplishment, of which the Jews were so proud, aroused just the opposite feelings among the Arabs, for Palestine was regarded also as part of the Arab homeland. Large numbers of Arabs lived there, and the Arabs felt bitterly that the promises made to them during the war were being broken by the establishment of a Jewish state in Palestine. The situation was made worse when Hitler came to power in Germany, for his persecutions made the Jews look to Palestine for safety, and thousands of homeless refugees crowded in: far more than the limited size and resources of Palestine could properly bear.



Courtesy Miller Services

Modern Theatre in Tel Aviv

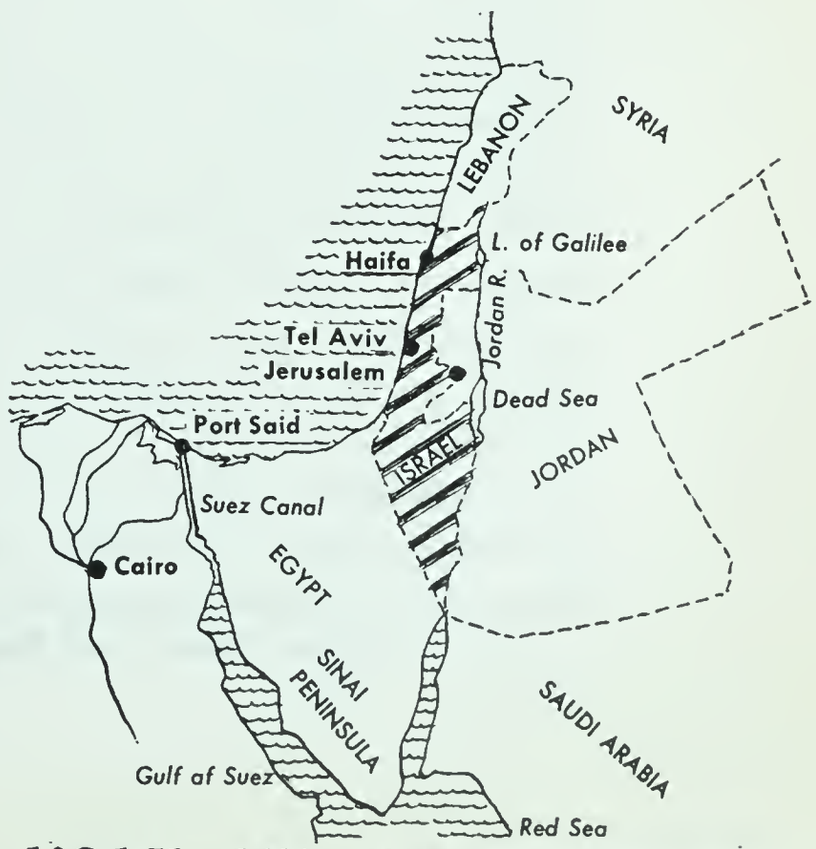
So the long quarrel between Jews and Arabs over Palestine was made worse rather than better, and became one of the unhappiest events in our modern world. It has led to violence and bloodshed, has aroused bitter nationalism on both sides, and has united the feelings of the Arab nations more than anything else that has happened. Britain, who made promises to both and whose sympathies were divided, tried for years without success to find some compromise. Finally, she announced that she was withdrawing her troops in 1948, and when she did so war flared up. In the fighting, the Arabs were defeated, and the independence of Israel was recognized in 1949. Arab Jordan, however, also became independent and so Palestine was divided between Arab and Jew.

As a result, thousands of Arab refugees left their former homes in Israel, posing another serious problem. In 1954 there were still

870,000 of them being cared for by a United Nations Commission. The United Nations sought to keep a truce between Israel and her Arab neighbours, but there were many disturbances along the borders. Thus the question of Palestine remained unsolved, and indeed it was no longer a question only for the Middle East. It had become an international question which even countries so far away as Canada could not ignore.

(d) North Africa, Iran, and National Unrest. We have not mentioned Iran and North Africa, but in these parts also nationalism is at work, sometimes more, sometimes less, violently. In North Africa, Libya was formerly an Italian colony that had been won from Turkish rule. But when Italy was defeated in the Second World War, Libya was handed over to the United Nations, and in 1949 it was decided that it should become an independent country. This was done in 1952; yet Libya's proud but poor Arab people face a difficult task of running a new nation. Only a handful, indeed, can even read and write.

Tunisia, Algeria and Morocco, all more fertile, better developed lands, are in a different situation. Tunisia is a 'protectorate' of France, under French control but with some rights of self-government. Morocco is divided into two protectorates: Spanish in the north, French in the south, though the city and port of Tangier, on the coast opposite Gibraltar, is so important in helping to guard the entrance to the Mediterranean that it has been put under international control. Algeria is different from Tunisia or Morocco, because it is not a protectorate but has been governed as a part of France since 1842. It sends representatives to the French parliament, and its native inhabitants also have a share in their own local gov-



ISRAEL AND HER NEIGHBOURS

ernment. All through North Africa there is a mixture of Arab and European peoples, and others also. This in particular creates problems, so that when difficulties arise there are often appeals to Arab 'nationalism', and against French 'imperialism'. Violence has flared in both Tunisia and Morocco in recent years, in protest against French control.

At the other end of the Middle East, the very name 'Iran' suggests the strength of nationalism, for Iran is the modern national title of the ancient country of Persia, whose history stretches back for thousands of years. Yet Iran or Persia — for both terms are used — has had a troubled history in modern times. Except for oil its resources are poor, and the mass of its people have suffered from disease, ignorance, and desperate poverty, while its few rich and powerful people have done almost nothing to cure these evils. Reforms were badly needed, but instead of reforms the country too often got misgovernment. Lying between Russia and the open sea at the Persian Gulf, Iran was exposed to outside pressures for many years. It is little wonder that its people became deeply suspicious of foreign influence and imperialism.

Following the Second World War Russia tried to keep troops in the country, but withdrew after Iran appealed to the United Nations. Then after a violent revolution, which brought into power Dr. Mossadegh, a rabid hater of foreigners, feeling was turned against the big Anglo-Iranian Oil Company. This was a British company which had one of the world's largest refineries at Abadan. In 1951 the properties of the company were nationalized by the Majlis, or Iranian parliament. That is, they were taken over by the government, which caused them to be closed down. This was a terrible blow to the country, and took away most of the government's revenue, but extreme nationalism was out of hand and not counting the cost of its actions. Not until another revolution overthrew Mossadegh in 1953 were negotiations begun to get the oil flowing again. The whole affair showed how narrow and self-destructive nationalism can become.

(e) Question Mark and Danger Spot. We can now see why

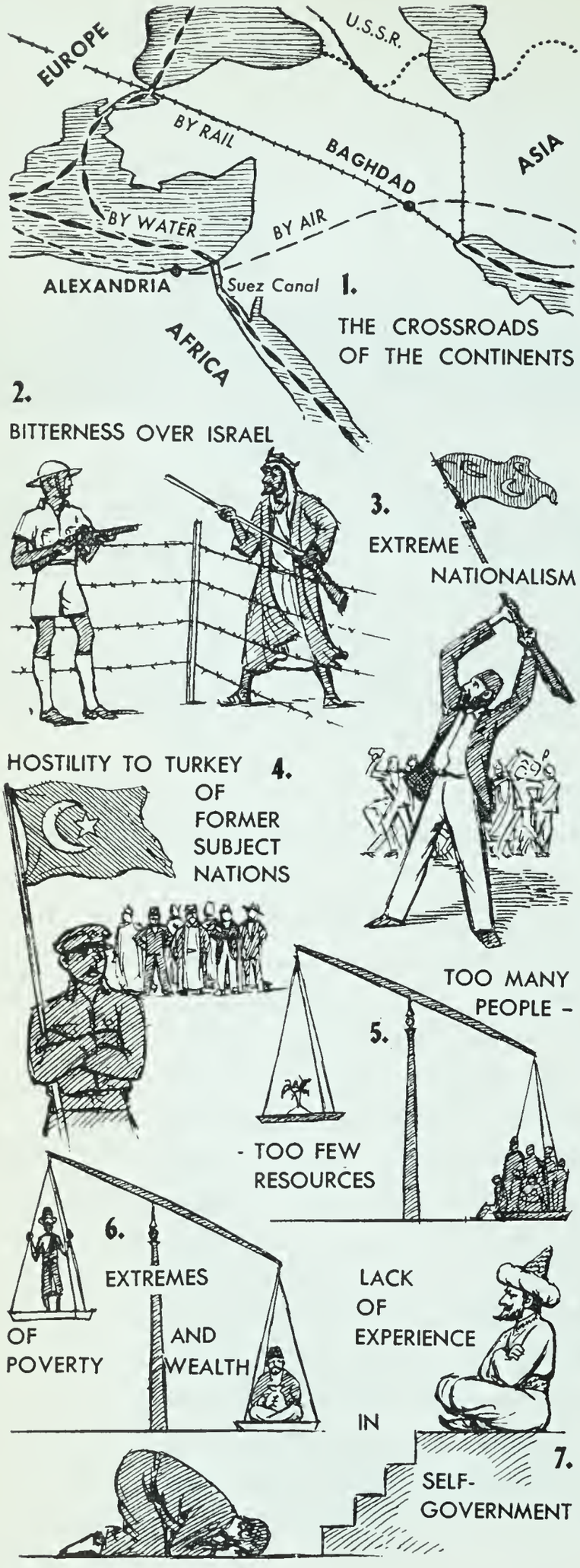


Courtesy Miller Services

AN OIL TANKER IN THE DESERT!

British troops keep the Suez Canal Zone safe for international trade and travel.

the Middle East and North Africa are a question mark in the international scene, and may easily become a danger spot. This is first of all because of their geography. The Middle East, we have said, lies at the crossroads of the continents, where Britain, the United States, Russia, France, Italy, and many smaller nations all have powerful interests, and where the interests of Russia and the West can easily come into conflict. Here also are some of the world's most important waterways: the Suez Canal and Red Sea, the Persian Gulf and the Dardanelles—in both of which Russia has always been interested—and the Strait of Gibraltar as well. The routes by sea and air to the Far East are vital to Britain and the nations of the West, and so is North Africa to the defence of Europe. This was shown very clearly in the Second World War by the importance of the long 'desert war' in North Africa. Both oil and air power have also increased the geographical importance of the Middle East in recent years.



MIDDLE EAST: CONFLICTS AND WEAKNESSES

A second reason why this region is a great question mark is its political instability. What is going to happen to its new countries? Will their governments be strong enough to bring about needed reforms, and will there be a growth of true democratic government? Turkey is an encouraging example, but in too many other countries there are discouraging signs. In these countries people have had no training in self-government. They do not even realize that it is necessary. Extreme nationalism has swept in, and the people expect great things from it, far more in many cases than the new nations can possibly give. Masses of people have been stirred up by new hopes and promises. Where millions live in great poverty, and a few in far too much wealth and luxury, violent outbursts and explosions of feeling are certain unless improvements are made.

Reforms, such as changing land laws which are unfair and hard on the poor, are usually opposed by people with wealth and power. Even reforms could not solve everything overnight where there are too many people and too few resources, but nationalist leaders

can always get support by making promises even when they do not intend to keep them. They can also throw blame on foreign governments or companies whether they are responsible or not, as was done in the case of the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company. We can understand why people in the Middle East are suspicious and fearful of foreign rule and 'imperialism' after having had centuries of it, but they also must learn that they cannot govern themselves if they are always being swept off their feet by violent outbursts and revolutions. This will only lead to dictatorship, and even encourage more outside interference. Thus we see that political instability and nationalism provide a second source of danger in the Middle East.

A third danger spot is found in the divisions and quarrels among the Middle Eastern nations which have prevented co-operation and created hatred. This is a threat to the peace of the Middle East and even of the world. One cause of division has been the feeling of the Arab nations against Turkey, their old ruler and enemy. This can be expected to pass, however, since the new Turkey is very different from the old. Much more serious is the bitter division betweeen the Arab nations and Israel. The Arab nations disapprove of both Britain and the United States for giving aid to Israel, and this stirred up feeling in all kinds of ways. For example, it brought outcries in Egypt against Britain because of her control of the Suez Canal. It also prevented a union of the Middle Eastern countries with Britain and the United States for defence. Such a union – a kind of Middle East NATO – would have made it much easier to strengthen the Middle East and hand over the Suez Canal to Egypt or to some international control.

The quarrel with Israel has, it is true, brought the Arab nations closer together. In 1945, they formed the Arab League in spite of their own divisions, and this sign of union among the Arabs was a good thing in many ways. But while the quarrel with Israel continues so bitterly, the Middle East cannot be united, and this means that it is always open to the threat of attack. This is what led Turkey and Greece, at the eastern end of the Mediterranean,

to join the North Atlantic Treaty Organization. They felt that they could not afford to stand alone, and the other countries of NATO felt that they could not do so either. Thus Canada is an ally of Turkey and Greece through the North Atlantic Treaty, and bound to help defend them if they are attacked. As Canadians look across today at the Middle East and North Africa, they must therefore have a real interest in this ancient region and in the countries which are making a new and difficult start in the twentieth century. Fortunately, we can see that there are not only question marks and danger signals, but signs of progress also.

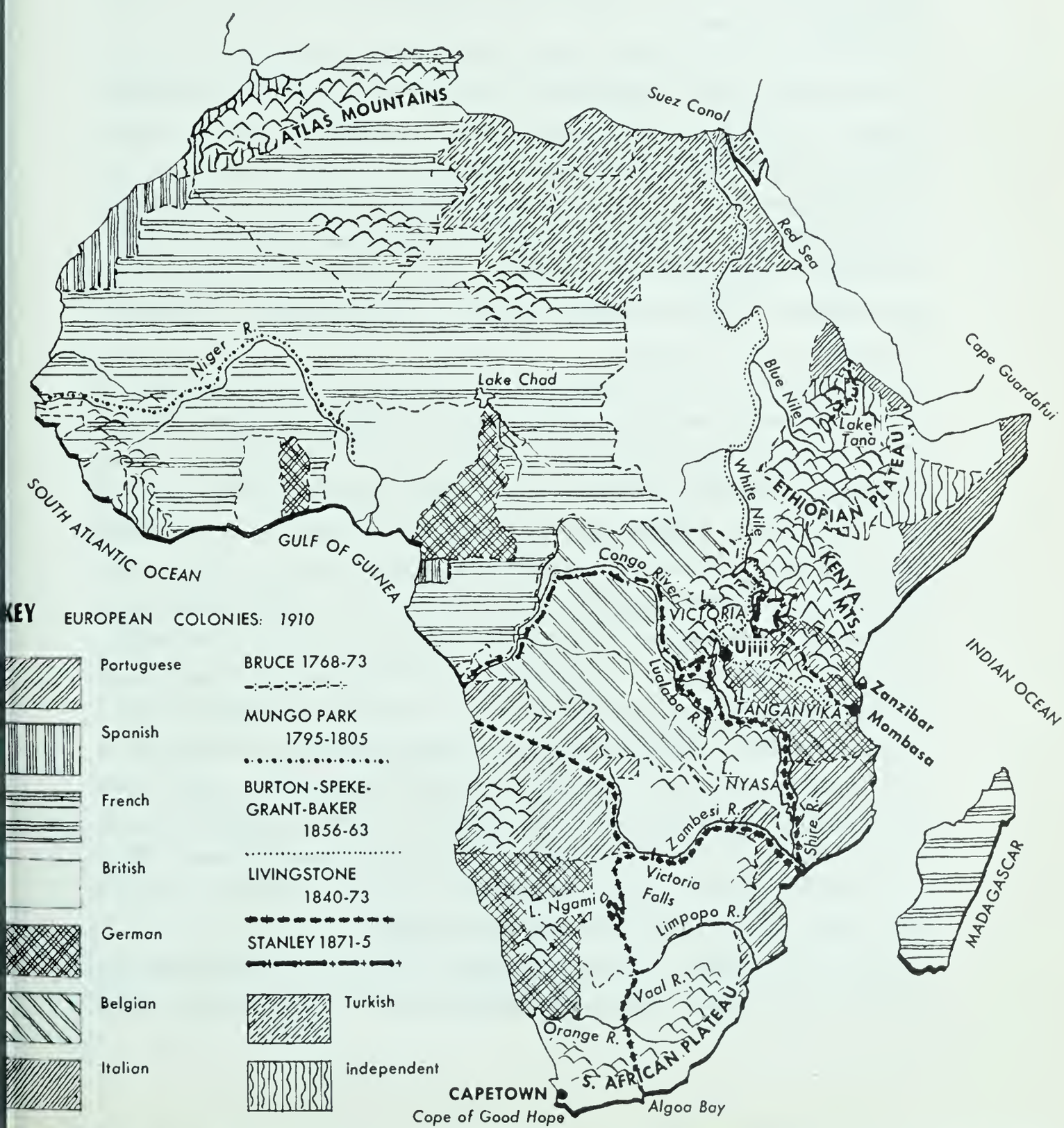
3. Central and South Africa

(a) The Opening of the Unknown Continent. On May 1, 1873, far in the interior of Africa the frail dead body of a white man was found kneeling beside his cot by his Negro servants. They were his only companions. Gathering the body up with loving care they bore it for over a thousand miles to the sea coast. Today it rests in Westminster Abbey. This was the body of David Livingstone, who sixty-three years earlier had been born of very poor parents in Scotland. At his death his name was world famous.

As a young man Livingstone determined to become a missionary to Africa. When he reached Capetown in 1841, Africa was the 'Dark Continent', unknown to the outside world except for the few trading posts and settlements around its coasts. Its thick central jungles had never been crossed by an explorer, its rivers traced or its mountains mapped. The source of the Nile was unknown; the strange stories told of pygmy men and giant apes who lived in the deep jungle interior were no more than stories – completely unproved. In thirty-three years, however, Livingstone travelled more than 30,000 miles in exploring the interior, and did more than any other man to open Africa to the eyes of the world. More than any other man, too, he helped destroy the Arab trade in Negro

slaves, by rousing public opinion and denouncing it as "the great open sore of the world".

Some may say that Livingstone's work, and that of Stanley and other explorers like them, caused Africa to be opened too fast; but for that they were not responsible. European adventurers, traders, and scientific expeditions quickly followed the explorers. Their



AFRICA - I PHYSICAL FEATURES, EXPLORATION, & COLONIES

governments backed them up, sometimes with armed force, when trouble broke out with the natives. Then treaties were made with the tribes, to take over the government and the development of area after area. In 1875, less than one-tenth of Africa was under European rule. Twenty years later, except for the native states of Ethiopia in the east and Liberia in the west, the whole continent was divided into the colonies and protectorates of half a dozen European nations.

To France went a great stretch of the Sahara and Central Africa, as far south as the Congo River, and also the large island of Madagascar. To Belgium went the region now known as the Belgian Congo, while Portugal obtained Angola on the west coast and Mozambique on the east. Germany gained southwest Africa, the Cameroons, and Tanganyika, all of which she lost as a result of the First World War. And Italy secured Italian Somaliland, and also Eritrea, which in 1952 became a self-governing country in federation with Ethiopia.

To Britain went the largest share. Already at the beginning of the nineteenth century, as a result of the Napoleonic War, she had obtained control of the Dutch settlements at the Cape of Good Hope in South Africa. Now in the 1880's and '90's, chiefly through the work of the shrewd and daring Cecil Rhodes, her territories were pushed northward from her South African colonies into what is now Rhodesia in Central Africa. Among other British possessions or 'protectorates' acquired in various ways were the Sudan, Kenya and Uganda in East Africa, and Nigeria, the Gold Coast, Gambia and Sierra Leone on the west coast. Most important, however, were those British colonies of white settlement at the foot of the continent (Cape Province, Natal, Orange Free State and Transvaal) which grew into the modern Commonwealth nation, the Union of South Africa. You may read the story of South Africa, Rhodes and the British expansion in Africa in the first book of this series, *Canada and the Commonwealth.*

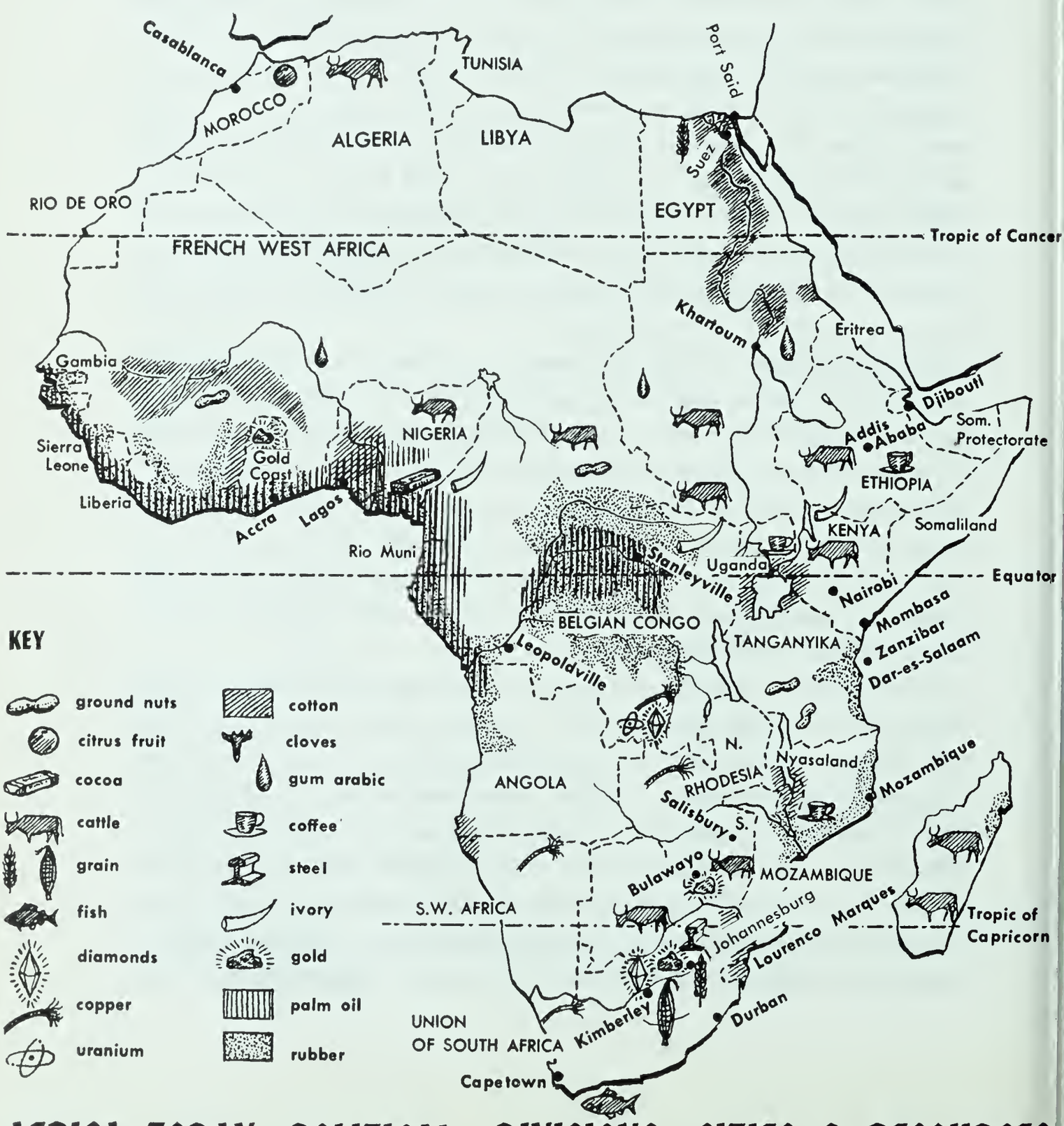
Events in Africa in the last years of the nineteenth century seemed to take place with express-train speed, but even more rapid

changes were to follow in the twentieth, as the result especially of two world wars. The change in communications has been enormous, and still goes on. Rivers and lakes unknown in Livingstone's time are now navigated by steamers, and railways have been built in from the coast at many points, though there is still not a network of rail lines all over the continent as in Europe or North America. Most remarkable was the growth of motor roads and air lines during the Second World War. Two highways run through Central Africa, for example, for over 1,700 miles from the Gulf of Guinea on the west coast to Sudan in the east; and there are airways equipped with runways and supply points across deserts and jungles. In a few hours people may fly the length and breadth of the continent which a century ago could not be crossed even with months of the hardest travel. There are still many parts untouched by these changes, but Africa is no longer the unknown continent. In less than one hundred years it has been brought into the very centre of the world scene.

The other great change in Central and South Africa lies in the rise of its industries and the opening up of its resources. We now know that this vast region has enormous resources of many kinds. Its tropical forests and farmlands, with their many products of dyewoods, vegetable oils, gums, cocoa, coffee, and cotton, its more temperate grassy upland regions, suitable for grain farming and stock raising, and its rich mineral deposits scattered through mountain, jungle and plain—all these show that Africa's modern development is only beginning.

South Africa's gold in the famous Witwatersrand district of the Transvaal was only discovered in 1896. In a few years the Transvaal became the world's greatest gold producing region, and there Johannesburg grew from a shack town into a large modern city. In 1946 an even richer gold reef was found in the Orange Free State. The story of South Africa's diamonds in which Rhodes first made his fortune was still more sensational. Diamonds have since been found in other parts, such as Angola, Sierra Leone, and the Belgian Congo; and Africa still produces by far the largest part of the

world's supply. Coal and oil do not seem to be plentiful in Africa, but there are tremendous deposits of copper in Northern Rhodesia, and the Congo basin, and many other minerals are found in abundance in various places, such as uranium in the Belgian Congo. Hydro-electric power, also, could be produced in great quantity at certain sites — for instance, at giant Victoria Falls in Rhodesia — but little has yet been developed.



AFRICA TODAY: POLITICAL DIVISIONS, CITIES & RESOURCES

The Second World War also encouraged the growth of manufacturing, though Africa is only at the beginning in this regard. There is a large steel works, for example, near Pretoria in South Africa and big shipyards at Capetown. With her varied resources Africa's industries are bound to grow. In some places there are serious problems of disease, such as sleeping sickness carried by the dangerous tsetse fly; but already much has been accomplished by scientific research, and without doubt more will be done.

(b) The Peoples of Awakening Africa. Africa's real problems are of a different kind. They are the problems of her people — her races and nations — and their relations with each other and the rest of the world. The continent has a very great mixture of peoples, as we have already noticed. In North Africa, in Egypt, the Sudan and the Red Sea region there has been a mingling and mixing of Arabs, Africans, and in some places Europeans, for many centuries. The Negroid, or African peoples compose by far the largest part of the continent's population, however. They are estimated at 125,000,000 and Central Africa is their homeland. They are by no means all the same, but include several types, made up of hundreds of tribes and divisions, which vary widely in appearance, habits, and ways of life. One can see this by comparing the Hottentots of the south, the Bantus further north, the Sudanese negroes still farther north, and so on. It is estimated that there are as many as two thousand languages and dialects spoken.

For many centuries the life of the Negroes of Central and South Africa apparently changed very little, though we shall never know much of their history as there are no written records. There were wars and conquests, and tribes moved back and forth, but life went on much the same. The Negroes through the centuries learned very well how to live in this vast but savage continent, with its jungles, plains, deserts, and wild animals. They farmed or hunted, or where it was possible, raised cattle also, as the Bantus did; and they lived by the rules of the tribe, which were often very complicated, as the rules of primitive tribes are likely to be.

This life of the tribes was often dangerous, often cruel; but

with its dances, its music and ceremonies, it could also be interesting and happy, and this is one of the things we should not forget when we look at Africa today. Often when the Negro has moved to the mine or the city to work, he has been uprooted without finding anything to satisfy him in place of the tribe and tribal life he left behind. The beautifully written South African story, *Cry, the Beloved Country,* gives a striking picture of this.

Though much of Africa's ancient savage life still remains, enormous changes have been made during the last hundred years, and especially in the last fifty. These changes have touched even the most remote tribes, and for millions of other Negroes life has been completely altered. No people anywhere have gone through a more rapid evolution. Negroes, whose grandfathers or great-grandfathers scarcely used a wheel, are now learning about airplanes, or engineering, or modern medicine. Today Africa is throbbing with new life and new ideas as well as difficult problems. New nations are being created, and most difficult of all is the problem of how Africa's black and white peoples are going to live together. Nationalism and racial problems are intermingled in Africa, and these are the two greatest question marks in this great continent. What happens about these things in Africa will be one of the most important facts of our twentieth century.

Nowhere in the world is 'race' so big a question as in Central and South Africa, a vast area almost wholly populated by dark-skinned peoples and very largely ruled by white. We have learned that there are no grounds for judging one race superior to another in the ability to learn and improve. The racial hatreds and racial problems that we find, therefore, are not based on any inborn superiority or inferiority between the races, but on differences in such things as appearance, or ways of living, or education, or rate of progress, or environment. This does not make such hatreds and problems any less real. They are the most difficult of our time. But if people understood more clearly the true causes of these problems and also realized the many false ideas about race which have often been believed, it would be a great step forward. We should

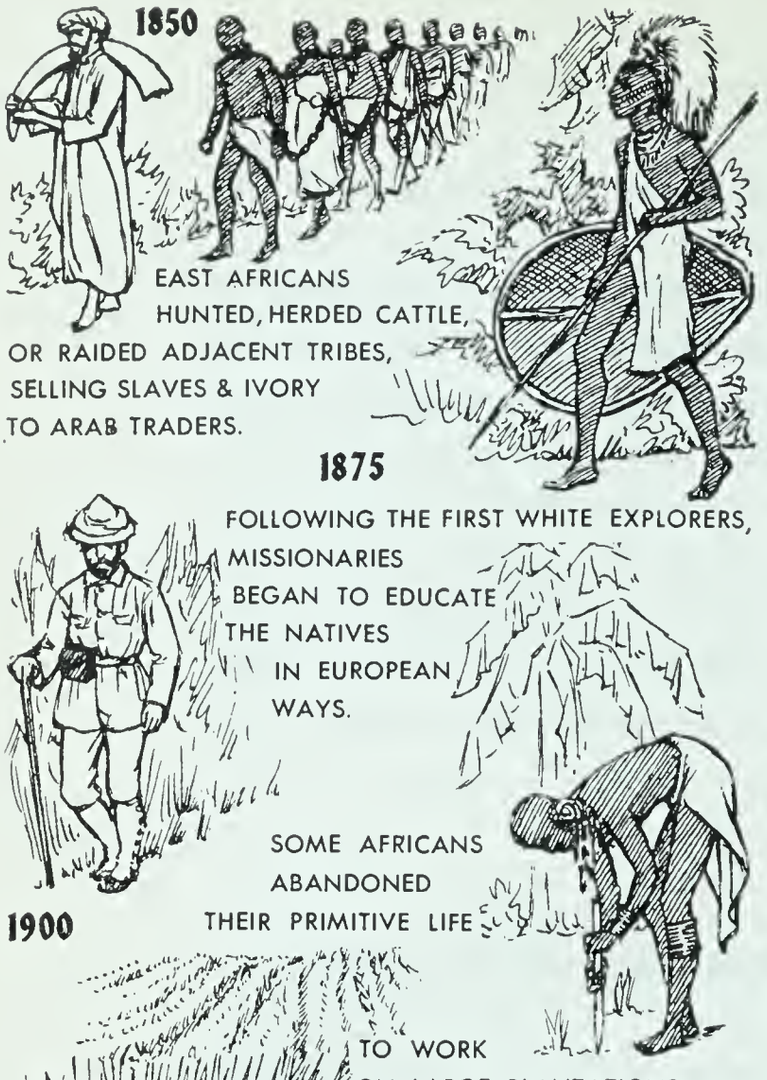
have much less of the prejudice and intolerance which work like a poison in our modern world.

To understand all the problems of race and nationalism in Central and South Africa we ought to look over the whole of this vast area, and it would be most interesting if we could do so in detail, for no two parts are quite the same. In some places the situation is encouraging, in others it is not, but everywhere we could see people, whether white or dark, hoping just like Canadians to do the best they can for themselves and their children. Sometimes when we read about far away places it is hard to remember that the most important thing about them is that real people live there.

4. Race and Nationalism in Central and South Africa

(a) The Union of South Africa. In the prosperous, modern Union of South Africa we can see the racial problem in its most difficult form. Here in a population of about twelve and one half millions, there are less than three million whites, over eight million 'natives', or 'Africans' as they are usually called, over one million 'coloured', that is, mixed black and white, and over 300,000 Asians. Moreover, the whites are divided into two groups: the Afrikaners, the descendants of the Dutch settlers who first came to South Africa in the seventeenth century; and the English-speaking South Africans, who have come from the British Isles, mainly since the gold and diamond mines began to open up in the 1870's and '80's. The city of Johannesburg, for example, is a result of this growth. Thus, there are five sharply different groups.

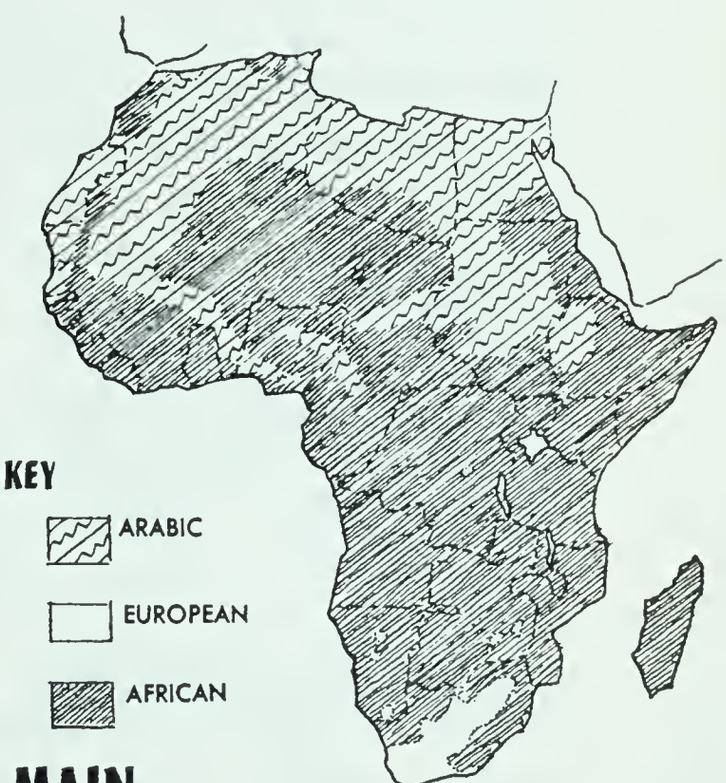
To understand how difficult the problem is, some other points must also be remembered. The Afrikaners have been there for two hundred and more years. They are no longer Dutch, they feel that South Africa is their home, and thus there is a strong Afri-



kaner nationalism. Moreover, when they first came, there were few natives that far south. The large African population has mostly been drawn from the tribes further north, and have come to do the hard labour especially in the mines and cities. They live for the most part under very bad conditions, with inferior rights and education. Having left their tribes, they feel uprooted and discontented.

In 1948 a sharp change in South Africa took place when the National Party led by Dr. Malan was elected to power. This strongly Afrikaner nationalist group had a small majority —even about one-quarter of the Afrikaners voted against it—but in spite of opposition it began a policy which aroused more bitter feeling than ever before in the country. This policy, called by the Afrikaner word *apartheid* (apart-ness, separateness), aims to separate the African, coloured, and Asian groups from the whites in every way, except as they may come together in their work. In schools, housing, recreation, travelling and all sorts of other ways they are to be kept apart.

The National Party held that only in this way could the Afrikaners protect themselves against being swamped by the great non-white majority, and it said also that the non-whites would be given their own schools and rights. The opponents of the government said, however, that *apartheid* is really a policy of discrimination, of keeping the Negro inferior, and that it is sure to cause hatred and explosions. They believed that only by improving and educating the African population and bringing them into full citizenship, however difficult that might be, could South Africa's problem of race relations be solved in the long run. Not discrimination, but partnership and co-operation, they felt, was the only cure.



MAIN LANGUAGE GROUPS OF AFRICA

In consequence, the eyes of the world have been turned on South Africa, for here is one of the most difficult cases of race relations to be found anywhere. Outside the Union of South Africa the policy of *apartheid* has also aroused strong feelings, for example in other parts of Africa, and in India and Pakistan—for of course Indians in South Africa also suffer under this policy. In many other countries, too, it is being closely watched, because in these days race relations are of serious concern to everyone. And in any case it is building up great resentment among South African Negroes that may lead to grave trouble.

(b) Building New African Nations. In Rhodesia, north of the Limpopo River, quite a different sort of development is taking place, one of Africa's most important experiments in nation building, that is meant to include both black and white. Here were

three important territories under British rule: Southern Rhodesia, which has a fair-sized white element in its population and a good deal of self-government, Northern Rhodesia, and Nyasaland. In 1953, after many long negotiations they came together into a federation. The British government favoured this union into a nation, but there were many doubts. The people of Nyasaland, almost wholly Negro, felt, for example that they might be safer to remain as a colony under the Queen, than become a part of a self-governing country with a dominant white group. The aim of Rhodesia, however, is co-operation among her people, black and white. "Let us show the world," said one of her leaders, "that we can create a great multi-racial state where the interest of all is to see that a civilized way of life is the common standard, and where the opportunity to advance in the economic and political spheres becomes a common heritage." If Rhodesia can realize this high and difficult aim she will be a very great influence not only in Africa but outside, for she has the resources to become an important central African nation in the Commonwealth.

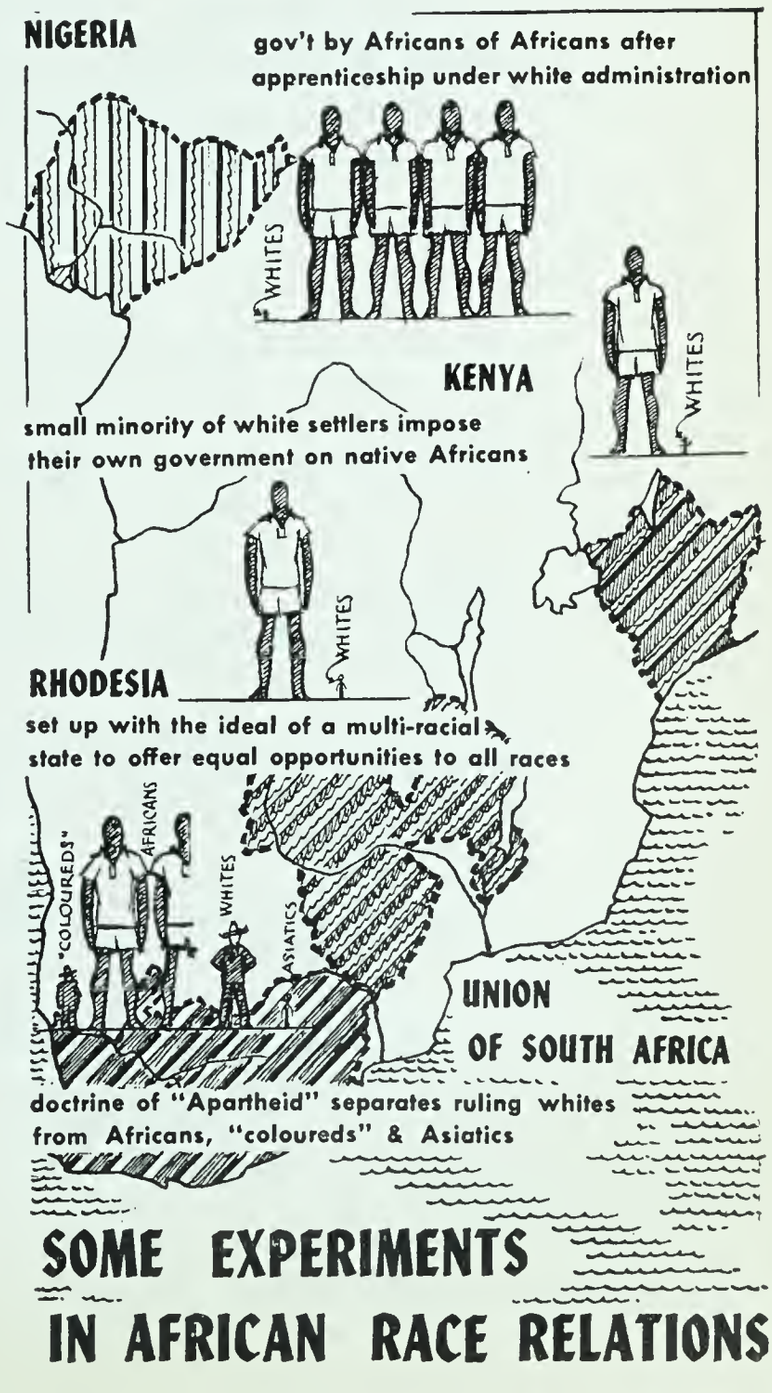
On the Atlantic coast are two other British possessions which are entering into complete self-government and nationhood, Nigeria and the Gold Coast. But these are different from Rhodesia and South Africa because almost their entire population is African. In 1951 the Gold Coast received a new constitution, which gave complete self-government; and the first elections brought into power the party which had long opposed British rule. It announced its desire to have complete self-government within the Commonwealth. So the Gold Coast may be the first Dominion to be governed by Africans.

Nigeria is the largest British West African possession. It has rich tropical resources and a population of over twenty-one million. Its three provinces had great difficulty in reaching an agreement for a united government, but in the summer of 1953, a conference was held in London where a new constitution was finally worked out by the Nigerian representatives themselves. This new constitution, which provided for a central government

and three regional governments, was a long step towards creating another self-governing African nation.

In British East Africa, too, there are signs of great change, but here the story is more troubled. The natives of East Africa are generally more backward in civilization than those of West Africa, and a lot more has to be done to bring them to a point where they can rule themselves. This process is going forward fairly smoothly in Uganda, but in Kenya, where a considerable number of white farmers have settled on the cool, healthful uplands, there have been sharp outbursts of violence and racial hatred, led by a secret African society called the Mau Mau which seeks to drive the white man out by murder and destruction, and by frightening the peaceful mass of the Negro population over to its side. The picture is not bright, but even here there are signs that violence can be ended, that black and white can live together in racial peace, while East Africa continues to move slowly towards self-government.

These are only some of the more important examples of the remarkable changes in Africa following the Second World War. They have been taken from the British possessions, not only because changes have been most rapid there, but because they are of tremendous importance to the Commonwealth and therefore to Canada also. Britain is trying with her colonies in Africa an experiment which no other empire has ever tried on such a scale—to train



and educate her African colonial peoples to govern themselves. Schools and colleges, many of which were started first by missionaries, have been increased, and many African students have been brought to study in British universities. Many plans to train Africans in self-government are being tried. Africa needs thousands of trained leaders, in politics and government, in teaching, medicine, and so forth, but it is quite clear that the African peoples can produce them if every effort is made on both sides.

If this peaceful revolution to self-government can take place in Africa it will make one of the greatest possible contributions to world peace and progress. Britain's responsibility is a very difficult one, for if self-government comes either too fast or too slowly disaster may result. Only by goodwill, patience, and imagination can this great experiment be worked out. Canada followed the path towards self-government in the nineteenth century. She cannot help watching with interest as the African peoples follow the same path in the twentieth.

Learn by Doing

1. Have committees make brief reports on each of the following empires or civilizations: Babylonian, Persian, Macedonian, Egyptian, Jewish, Phoenician and Arabian. (1, a)

2. (a) Have pupils report on the founding of Christianity, Mohammedanism and Judaism. (1, a and 2, b)

   (b) Discuss the similarities and differences in each.

3. Discuss the benefits and evils of nationalism; especially as seen in the Middle East. (2, a)

4. Have a committee look up information on the Crusades, and report to the class.

5. (a) Discuss the difficulties which Mustafa Kemal and Ismet encountered in reforming Turkey after World War I. (2, a)

   (b) What event indicated that Turkey has become democratic?

6. Discuss whether Britain should maintain troops in the Suez Canal Zone, (2, b)

7. Divide the class into two halves and debate whether the Jews or the Arabs should legally control Palestine. (2, c)

8. Discuss the reasons that make the Middle East a danger spot and what our attitude should be toward these countries. (2, e)

9. Have two pupils prepare an imaginary radio interview in which an announcer interviews Livingstone about his journeys in Africa. (3, a)

10. Using an atlas, prepare a series of maps on Africa to show: (a) surface features; (b) temperature and rainfall; (c) vegetation; (d) population.

11. "Africa's real problems are the problems of her people." Discuss this statement. (3, b)

12. Discuss South Africa's race problems with particular reference to *apartheid.* (4, a)

Facts to Know

1. List the main countries included in the terms: (a) Middle East; (b) North Africa. (1, a)

2. In what way does the location of the Middle East make it important? (1, a)

3. Compare trading as carried on in the Middle East today with early trading in this area. (1, a)

4. (a) Outline the reason for the great amount of desert land in Africa and the Middle East. (1, b)
   (b) In what ways has man helped create desert areas?
   (c) Explain the reason for ancient cities being buried in the sand.

5. (a) Why is the Nile Valley fertile? (1, b)
   (b) What part has irrigation played in the Middle East?

6. What factors have tended to divide the Arabs and what factors tend to unite them? (2, b)

7. What contributions did the Arab world make to civilization during the Middle Ages? (2, b)

8. What was the Balfour Declaration? (2, c)

9. Describe briefly the difficulties between England and Iran from 1950 to 1953. (2, d)

10. (a) What factors check the growth of stable democratic government in the Middle East?
    (b) What is meant by the Arab League? (2, e)

11. How did Britain acquire an African Empire? (3, a)

12. Describe the life of the natives of Central Africa before being changed by western civilization. (3, b)

13. (a) In what way is Rhodesia attempting to solve her race problems differently from South Africa? (4, b)
    (b) How is Britain attempting to prepare the people of Africa for independence?

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UNIT EIGHT

CANADA LOOKS ACROSS THE ARCTIC

1. *The Opening of Canada's Far North*
2. *Canada's Largest Arctic Neighbour: The Soviet Union*
3. *The Story of Russia*
4. *Russian Communism and its Expansion*

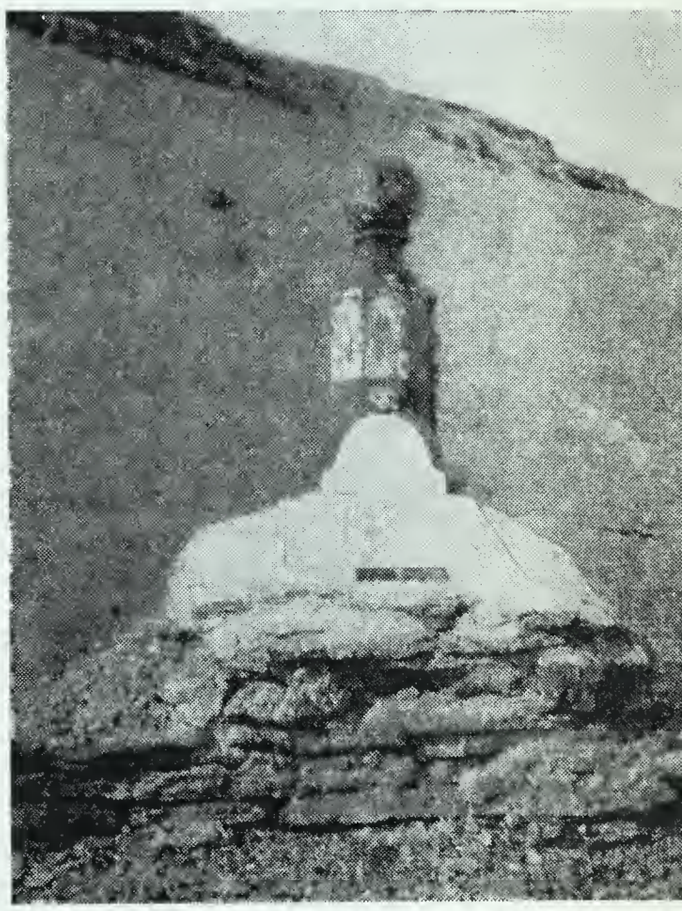
1. The Opening of Canada's Far North

(a) The Arctic—Yesterday and Today.

In May 1845, there set out from England one of the most famous and tragic expeditions in the long history of Arctic exploration — the last expedition of Sir John Franklin. His plan was to search again for the North West Passage above North America, which explorers had been trying to find for almost three hundred years. His two little ships, the *Erebus* and *Terror,* were equipped with everything then known for Arctic exploration. Sir John was a most experienced commander and Arctic explorer and everyone had the highest hopes. But the ships vanished in Canada's Arctic waters,

never to be seen again, and of the whole party of over a hundred, not one returned alive.

As the months passed, people in England became concerned, Following 1848 no less than thirty-nine expeditions were sent out to search. They never found Franklin's party but they did explore thousands of miles of the Canadian Arctic coastline, and found a cairn with records, which told much of the tragic story. The ships had been caught in the ice near Boothia Peninsula. Franklin himself died in 1847. In April, 1848, those still alive decided to abandon the ships and try to reach some point of safety. Not one succeeded, and Franklin's gallant expedition was thus added to the long list of victims of the Arctic's pack ice and cruel cold.



Dept. of Northern Affairs

This monument in Canada's far north commemorates the tragic death of Sir John Franklin and his party.

Just over a century later, and hundreds of miles further north, there took place an event which certainly would have interested Franklin, and every other Arctic explorer of former days. It was the establishment in 1950 of the northernmost post office in the world. This is Alert, at the northern end of Canada's Ellesmere Island. Two years earlier, a tractor for making an airstrip had been cached on the beach with fuel and other supplies put ashore from an ice-breaker. Now a small party was landed from a ski-equipped aircraft, the tractor was started, and an airstrip was levelled off for big supply planes; buildings were quickly put up, and this farthest north post was established. Though it is a post office, Alert's chief importance is as a weather station, one of the Arctic's network of stations from which information is sent out every few hours the year round.

Thus men now live and work in the Arctic in a way that could scarcely have been imagined even fifty years ago. For Canada, the Arctic has taken on a new meaning. No longer is it merely a vast, almost unknown, stretch on the map—and for this there are at least three reasons. First, we know that the Arctic's resources, though far from fully explored, are very valuable. Second, flying has changed its importance as nothing else could have done. Many of the shortest routes between the world's great cities lie across the Arctic. More and more the Arctic will become of international significance for this reason. Third, Canada's nearest neighbour across the Arctic is the Soviet Union, and so the far northern region forms a vitally important frontier between the communist world and democratic North America.

Fifty years ago a map drawn with the North Pole in the centre would have seemed ridiculous. Today, that is no longer so. Canada has in her Arctic land a great opportunity and a great responsibility—an opportunity to develop its resources, a responsibility for its defence, for its government, for its scientific exploration and development, and above all for the welfare of its people.

(b) The Story of Arctic Exploration. The first Arctic explorers were probably the ancestors of our Eskimos, who came from Asia several thousand years ago. Nearly a thousand years ago, moreover, the Norsemen went on from Greenland, to reach the northeastern coast of Canada, somewhere in Labrador. But the modern history of Arctic exploration begins in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, as we can tell from such famous names on the map as Frobisher, Davis, Baffin and Hudson. These were the great sea captains—each with a thrilling story—who began from the reign of Elizabeth I to search for the North West Passage, hoping to find a way through to the Far East. They did not succeed, but they did discover seaways into the Arctic regions and their adventures were highly important in first unlocking the mighty Canadian North.

A new stage began in 1670 with the establishment of the Hudson's Bay Company, and for the next century and a half the

Canadian North was opened up as a fur-trader's empire. In the late eighteenth century the North West Company was also established. Between them, these two powerful companies—which were united in 1821—extended their trade and their explorations over the whole North, right to the Arctic Ocean and even to the chain of islands reaching northward into that sea. Most famous of the great fur-trading explorers was Alexander Mackenzie, who crossed the continent both to the Arctic shores by way of the Mackenzie River, and to the Pacific, in a search for an easy route to the open waters of the western ocean. On his expedition to the Arctic coast in 1789 along the Mackenzie—which he named River Disappointment—he travelled 3,000 miles in 102 days; a remarkable canoe journey, in which his small party of French-Canadian paddlers and Indians had to cross Great Slave Lake through broken ice and spring gales. We can imagine Mackenzie's interest if he could travel the same route today by diesel-driven boat in summer or tractor-sleigh train in winter, and visit the modern mines of Yellowknife on Great Slave Lake, and the stock farm and vegetable fields at Aklavik near the mouth of the great river he discovered.

Sir John Franklin's tragic story began still another stage in the opening of the Arctic. The expeditions which were sent out to search for him aroused very great interest in the mapping of the Arctic islands, and in the attempt to reach the North Pole. Why anyone should wish to reach the North Pole does not seem clear, but men are never satisfied to leave a mystery of that kind unsettled. In the next fifty years, and especially towards the end of the nineteenth century, all kinds of expeditions, led by men of various countries, attempted to conquer the terrible problems of the polar icepack and the uncertain weather.

The Norwegian, Fridtjof Nansen, studied the Arctic Ocean's currents and tried drifting across its heart from the Arctic coast of Europe. His ship was locked in the ice fields for three years, but drifted as expected, though he failed to reach the Pole itself on a quick dash which he made by dog team. In 1897, a Swedish aeronaut, Andreé, tried to sail by balloon across the Pole, but came to

disaster. Finally, by crossing the ice fields north of Ellesmere Island by dog team, the American, Robert Peary, succeeded in reaching the Pole in 1909. All these expeditions were made with the best knowledge and scientific equipment that men had at the time, but now another new chapter opened in the story of the Far North, with new ideas for meeting the severe conditions of Arctic life,



DISCOVERY & EXPLORATION OF CANADA'S ARCTIC FRONTIERS

and new methods, such as air travel and radio, for overcoming the great problem of distance.

An early example of the new period was the work of the famous Canadian explorer, Vilhjalmur Stefansson. In his most important expedition, 1913-18, Stefansson proved that it was possible to live on food obtainable in the Arctic for many months, and his book *The Friendly Arctic* made a great impression, even though in some respects his ideas seemed too optimistic. Following his expeditions, Stefansson became a great authority on the history and geography of the Arctic and his writings became world famous. Other expeditions sponsored by the Canadian government were led by Bernier (1906-13), MacMillan (1913-17), and Manning after the Second World War. Research was done to improve clothing and diet for Arctic living.

In the 1920's, flying came into Arctic exploration and this marked the greatest change of all. Canada's largest contribution to aviation between the two Wars was made in her own northland of the Northwest Territories. The story of the Canadian 'bush pilots' is one of the most remarkable parts of the history of the entire North. They did not think of themselves as explorers. Their job was transporting people and goods, and they also made many 'mercy flights' to bring out sick and injured persons for medical care. Prospectors, missionaries, scientists, mail, food, even heavy machinery for mines, tractors, and almost everything you could think of, were carried hundreds of miles at all times of the year, often into places which could otherwise only be reached by canoe or dog train.

For over two hundred years the Far North had been the preserve of a handful of fur traders and wandering hunters. Fur still was important, but the North was now opening to many other kinds of people, who were learning how to spend a comfortable life there as permanent settlers, all year round. In 1933 the first Canadian radium was produced after the discovery of Eldorado mine at Port Radium, and in 1935 gold was found at Yellowknife on Great Slave Lake. Flourishing settlements and even towns

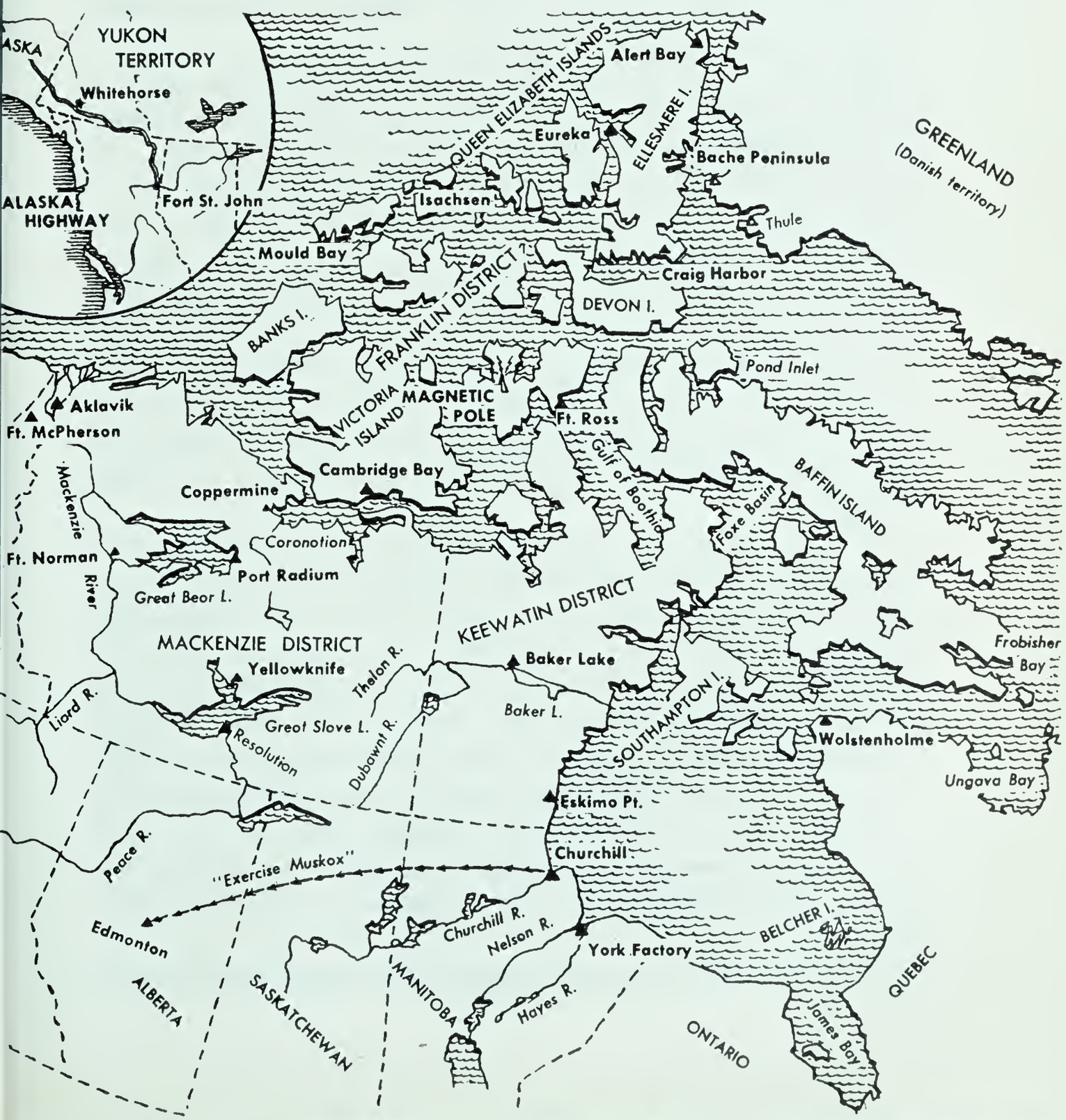
sprang up in the empty wilderness to house the people working in these industries. The Mackenzie and other waterways remained extremely important in providing communications for them, but the aeroplane and radio made rapid development possible in the North-west Territories, which could scarcely have taken place with the older methods of canoe or even riverboat travel.

Meanwhile the aeroplane was coming into the Arctic still farther north. In 1926 the American explorer, Lieutenant-Commander (later Admiral) Byrd, flew from Spitzbergen to the North Pole and back, 1,600 miles in fifteen and a half hours. Soon there were other flights, and it was realized that thousands of airmiles could be saved by the short routes across the 'top of the world'. By the 1930's the Russians were showing an active interest from their side. In 1937 they established a camp, equipped with radio, on the ice-covered ocean near the Pole, and in the same year a Russian aeroplane flew across the Arctic to California. The aircraft had finally conquered the vast, cold Arctic, and opened it up for amazing development.

(c) Canada Develops her Arctic Lands. In this same period of the 1920's and 30's, Canada increased her government services in the Arctic. She had received the Arctic Islands, stretching far north of the Arctic Circle, from Britain in 1880, but for a number of years it seemed that no regular services were needed so far north. In 1922, however, regular patrols of the Royal Canadian Mounted Police were begun, and by 1930 permanent police posts were established as far north as Ellesmere Island, with patrols covering hundreds of thousands of square miles. The duties of the Police were much more than keeping law and order. They were customs officers, postmasters, game wardens, and welfare officers, ready to aid anyone who might need help.

But it was only with the Second World War that greater changes began in the Canadian Arctic than had taken place in any previous time. To meet the wartime need of a safe land route to Alaska, then threatened by Japanese attack, the Alaska Highway was built by the joint effort of the United States and Canada. It provides a 1,500

mile road from Edmonton, through Grande Prairie, northern British Columbia, Whitehorse in the Yukon, and on to Fairbanks, Alaska. Much of this country had never before been opened and it was said that the road would be of little use after the war. During the first four months of 1952, however, 5,885 automobiles carrying nearly 15,000 persons travelled this route. Edmonton also became



THE CANADIAN NORTHWEST TERRITORIES & ARCTIC ISLANDS

the terminus of a great air transport system during the war, that carried supplies across northern Canada and Alaska, and on to Russia.

These and other activities, especially the tremendous increase of Arctic flying, showed that Canada must take a far greater interest in the North and the Arctic than ever before. And so she did, after the war, particularly with regard to defence, the establishment of weather stations, and the scientific mapping, studying and development of far northern resources.

In 1946 a Canadian Army motorized expedition, 'Exercise Muskox', travelled overland in winter from Churchill to Edmonton to investigate the problems of northern winter transport. This successful test helped to improve the various forms of tracked vehicles, such as the 'Penguin' that can be used in the roadless, snowy wastes for defence purposes. Canada has an important share in helping to defend the northern part of the continent, and planning for this is one of the chief responsibilities of the Permanent Joint Board of Defence, established by the United States and Canada in 1940. Alaska and the Canadian Arctic are North America's northern frontier. Many measures are necessary for its defence. For example, a radar screen to detect enemy planes is steadily being extended.

Weather stations are another necessity, as much in peace as in war, and the Arctic weather stations are particularly important, not only for North America but for Europe. Before 1947, weathermen looked unhappily at the Arctic maps, and wondered what mischief was being developed by the wild air currents in the great unknown stretches at the 'top of the world'. In that year, however, Canada and the United States worked out a joint plan for weather stations extending to the islands farthest north in Canada's Arctic —islands which are the farthest northern parts of the whole British Commonwealth, and which were given the name of the Queen Elizabeth Islands in 1954, in honour of Queen Elizabeth II.

Under the joint Canadian-American plan, five weather stations

were established, all of them north of 74°. Alert, already mentioned, is the farthest of all. It and Eureka, also on Ellesmere Island, are supplied from the big American base at Thule on the west coast of Greenland. Resolute, just north of 74°, is an important Canadian air base as well as a weather station, and from it the other two, Mould Bay and Isachsen, are also supplied. Twice a year the big planes bring in supplies and new men, and every day the station crew sends out news of the weather by radio.

This is just an example of the activities now going on in Canada's Northwest Territories and Arctic regions. Every summer, expeditions of all kinds, sent by government or private organizations, range through the North all the way from Churchill and Labrador to the Queen Elizabeth Islands. In 1952, for instance, the Geological Survey of Canada had seventy-seven parties at work in the North. Air-mapping, prospecting, the study of plants and animals, experiments with means of building on ground permanently frozen beneath the surface (permafrost) are only a few of the things being done. In 1953 it was announced that the whole town of Aklavik, at the mouth of the Mackenzie, was to be moved to a new site not affected by permafrost. Thus people are learning to live and work, and even to grow things in the North, in ways which would have been impossible a few years earlier.

Yellowknife already has a population of over 2,700, and a typical 'city' existence, with movies, busy streets and taxi cabs! Port Radium, which for years produced uranium just as a by-product of radium, has a whole new importance now that uranium is a source for atomic energy. And Norman Wells and the Mackenzie tar sands promise a wealth of oil for future northern development. Furthermore, it is already known that there are great stores of iron and other minerals available for that future day.

Canadians now realize the tremendous importance of this expansion northward, and the responsibility which Canada has for her Arctic region and all who live there. In 1953, the Canadian government changed the name of its Department of Resources

and Development to 'The Department of Northern Affairs and National Resources', showing, as the Prime Minister said, that "the centre of gravity of the department is being moved north". "We must leave no doubt," he declared, "about our active occupation and exercise of our sovereignty in these northern lands. . . . We have a trust to future generations for the resources with which providence has endowed this vast land." So the Canadian Arctic is no longer a vast empty and unknown region. It has found its important place not only in the minds of the Canadian people, but on the map of the world. And Canada must now look north not to a useless, frozen 'backyard', but to a whole new frontier that brings her into contact with neighbouring lands around the Arctic Ocean.

2. Canada's Largest Arctic Neighbour: The Soviet Union

(a) The Lands of the U.S.S.R. Canada has five Arctic neighbours: Alaska, which belongs to the United States, Greenland, which belongs to Denmark, Iceland, Norway, and the Soviet Union or the U.S.S.R.—the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, as Russia has come to be called under the communists. Of these the U.S.S.R. is much the largest, with an Arctic coastline that stretches for over 4,000 miles across almost the entire northern width of Asia and Europe. Canada and the Soviet Union between them hold by far the greatest part of the Arctic region.



CANADA'S ARCTIC NEIGHBOURS

This is a very good reason why

Canadians should know something of the U.S.S.R. and its people. But there are other reasons too. The U.S.S.R. has grown immensely in military and economic strength, and, as a result, its importance in international affairs has also increased enormously. Moreover, under its communist leaders, it has ways of life and government which are quite different from ours, and it has aims for world power which are a threat to world peace. For all these reasons, therefore, we must try to understand something of the geography, history and ideas of this great neighbour which, until the Arctic was opened, seemed so far away.

When we look first at the geography of the U.S.S.R., we can realize at once how important are its size and position. From Kaliningrad (Konigsburg) on the Baltic to the far eastern tip of Siberia that faces Alaska, is a distance of almost 7,000 miles. With an area of about eight and a half million square miles, the U.S.S.R. is the largest unbroken land mass under one government in the world. Yet, in spite of its enormous size, it is isolated. Most of its great coastline is on the Arctic. Nowhere has it ice-free ports on the open ocean. And so it has largely lived by itself. More than any other country, moreover, even the United States, the Soviet Union can do without outside trade, and could, if necessary, live on its own products. Hence it has never been easy to have close contacts between the people of Russia and the western world, and it would not be easy now, even if the Soviet government wished it.

Nowhere else in the world would such a large isolated country be possible. This isolation has been both a disadvantage and an advantage to Russia. It has held back her progress. Only in this century, for example, did the Industrial Revolution affect her to any extent. On the other hand her size and long hard winters have been a tremendous advantage for defence. Napoleon lost his Grand Army in 1811-12 in invading Russia, even though he took its capital, Moscow, and Hitler failed to conquer Russia in 1941-2, even though his army got to the oil-rich Caucasus and almost to Moscow's gates.

In Unit Six we described the geography of European Russia,

with its vast grassy plains or steppes, its great stretches of northern forests, and still farther north, its tundras and Arctic lands. We also noticed how the great plain of Russia stretches on eastward past the Ural Mountains far toward the Pacific. And we know that the Urals are low mountains and not a serious barrier between Europe and Asia.

East of them are the enormous stretches of Siberia, as the Asiatic part of the U.S.S.R. has long been called. With its great area of over four million square miles it has always been a mysterious and largely unknown land to the people of western Europe. From somewhere in its vast interior came the Mongol and Tartar invasions of centuries ago. Until 1905, when the 4,500 mile long Trans-Siberian Railway was completed, it was crossed only by caravan trails. For long years under Russia's former emperors, the Czars, it was the land to which prisoners were banished; and under the communist rulers it has swallowed up many more millions of prisoners, either those taken in war, or those sent to concentration camps for opposing the communist government.



UNION OF SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLICS: PHYSICAL FEATURES

To the south and the far east, Siberia is flanked by the mountains of western China and Mongolia, and by the Stanovoi Mountains stretching northward near the Pacific coast to the Bering Strait. From these highlands Siberia's vast plain slopes northward down toward the Arctic, and so all of its great rivers except the Amur flow into the Arctic Ocean. The Ob, the Yenisei, and the Lena are each over 2,000 miles long. Siberia's lakes, including Lake Baikal, the largest fresh-water lake in Asia and the deepest in the world, are also useful for transportation and fishing, but are frozen during the long winter.

Lying open to the Arctic, and stretching across a continental interior, Siberia, like Canada's central plain, is a land with extremes of heat and cold. In the far north the summers are very short, but the thermometer may climb toward the 100° mark, and plants grow rapidly in the short warm season. The farthest north is a tundra region, unsuitable for agriculture, just as in Canada, and south of that is a vast coniferous forest area, which is one of the most



UNION OF SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLICS **CLIMATE**

valuable in the world, not only for its timber but for its fur-bearing animals. The best agricultural lands, which are not unlike those of Western Canada, lie in the southwest and are large producers of grain, livestock and vegetables. Again like the Canadian prairie, this area does not have a heavy rainfall. In fact, this is true of the whole of Siberia, except for some humid stretches along the Pacific coast.

We have mentioned Siberia's timber, furs, fish and agricultural products but it has other very valuable resources as well, especially in its minerals—which makes it like our Canadian Shield northland. There are rich deposits of coal, iron, copper, lead, silver, gold, platinum and other minerals; and these, with water power for electricity, have made possible a large industrial development in certain districts, with cities like Stalinsk in central Siberia, and Magnitogorsk in the Urals. Other centres of growing importance are Sverdlovsk, on the western edge, Omsk and Irkutsk in the heart of Siberia, and Vladivostok, the Soviet Union's chief port on the Pacific.

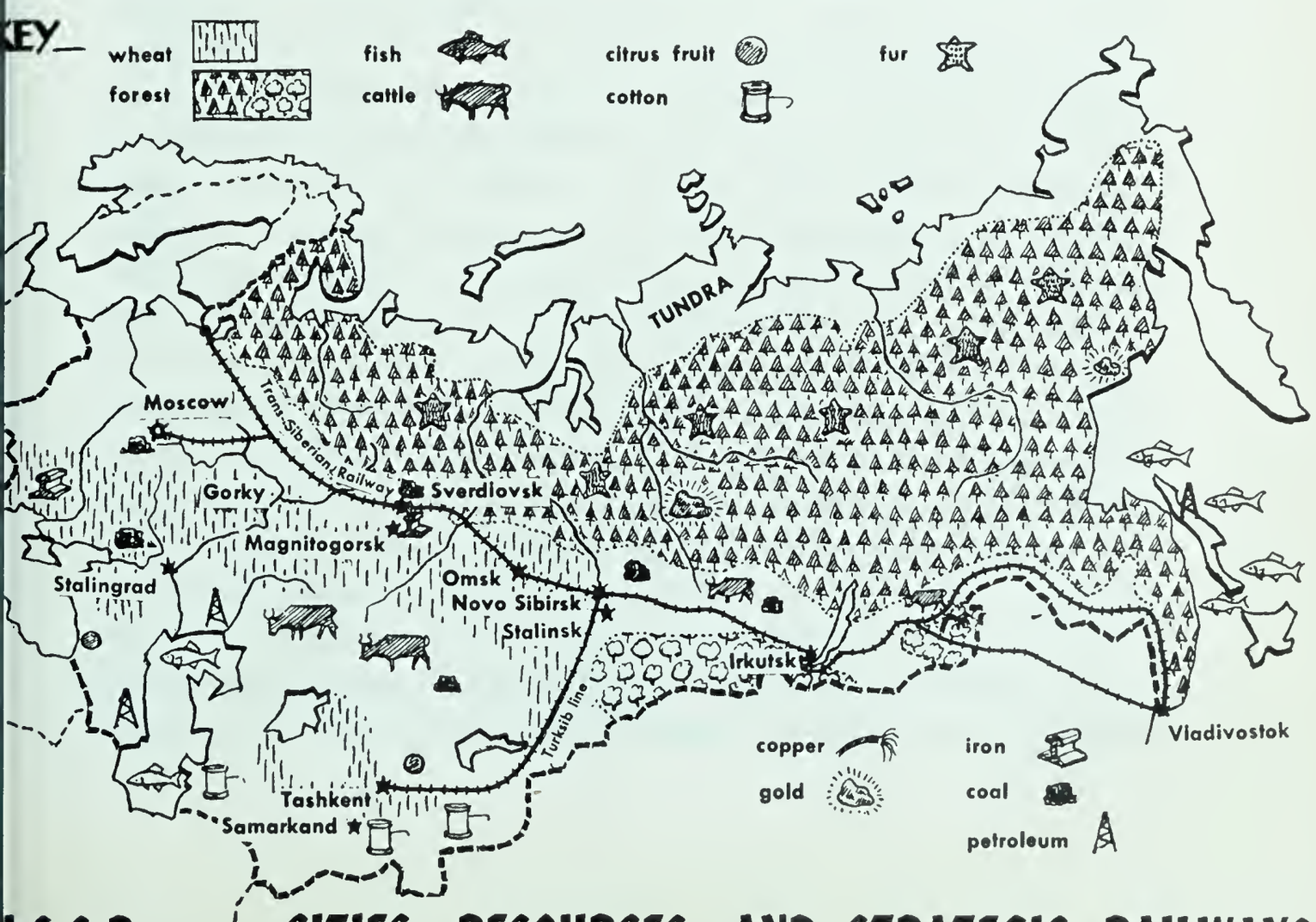
Until after the First World War, however, there was little of such development in Siberia. For this there were various reasons. Transportation was poor. The Trans-Siberian Railway, longer than the Canadian transcontinentals, had a great effect after it was finished in 1905, just as our own C.P.R. did. But branch lines were lacking, and they were not provided very rapidly by the incapable Czarist government.

Only in 1930 was the 'Turksib' line opened from Tashkent, the chief city of Turkistan in the south, to Novo Sibersk, the centre of Siberian government. It is useful for carrying cotton from the southern farms and timber from the northern forests. In recent times roads have been built and motor traffic increased, though there are large stretches of Siberia where there is little population or improvement of this kind. Yet the Soviet government has been very active in opening the far northern and Arctic region, both in Eu rope and Asia. Ice-breakers on the rivers and along the Arctic coast, aircraft, and motor driven sledges have opened up regions formerly

little travelled. Much of this can be compared to the development which has gone on in the Canadian North, though in many ways the Russians have gone further. As in Canada, also, scientific work has been done on many Arctic problems, such as in the study of weather conditions, the development of special types of plants for growth in the short summer seasons, and so forth.

In looking at the geography of the whole Soviet Union we see, therefore, that it presents both difficulties and advantages. The size of this enormous country, its isolated position, and harsh climate create very great problems. On the other hand, it has tremendous resources of almost every kind which can be developed to support a very large population.

(b) The People of the U.S.S.R. The population of the U.S.S.R., of which only about one-tenth dwell in Siberia and the rest in European Russia, is believed to be about 210 millions. In it there are said to be more than 150 groups or nationalities. This great mixture of languages, cultures and histories makes a very complicated picture. Mongol peoples in the far east, Uzbeks,



U.S.S.R. CITIES, RESOURCES, AND STRATEGIC RAILWAYS

Kazaks, and Kirgizes east of the Caspian Sea, Azerbaidzhans, Georgians, Armenians in the Caucasus, and Estonians, Latvians, Lithuanians, on the Baltic—these and a great many other groups are to be found, especially in the border lands of the U.S.S.R. By far the largest groups, however, are the Russians, or Great Russians as they are often called, who make up perhaps half of the entire population, the Ukrainians, who number perhaps another forty millions, and next to these, though much smaller, the White Russians or Byelorussians. The Great Russians have for a very long time claimed that the Ukrainians are not a separate nationality or group with their own language and culture, but only a branch of the Russians. This has caused much bitterness, for there is a deep-seated Ukrainian nationalism, running far back to the days when the Ukrainians of Kiev ruled a broad empire from the Black Sea to the Baltic, long before the Russians or Muscovites of Moscow had begun to rise.

Yet this is only one example of the difficulties created by the many divisions in the U.S.S.R.'s population. In theory the Soviet Union is very tolerant of its minority groups. Each is supposed to have complete freedom to develop its own culture in its own language. Moreover, as you can see from its title, Russia is termed a 'union of socialist republics', and thus there are a number of supposedly self-governing republics within the U.S.S.R., each representing national groups; for example, the Estonian and the Latvian republics in Europe, and the Kazak and Turkmen republics in Asia. But actually the Great Russians and their own big Russian republic (which includes most of Siberia) dominate what is really a communist Russian empire. Furthermore a vast programme of 'Russification' has been carried on throughout the Soviet Union in the teaching of Russian language and history and the glorifying of everything Russian—including ascribing every invention from the steam engine to radar to hitherto unknown Russian 'inventors'!

Nevertheless we should never forget that Great Russia has produced a brilliant, many-sided culture that has enriched the whole world. The name of Leo Tolstoy (1828-1910), novelist, poet and

philosopher, is known in many lands for his magnificent works *War and Peace* and *Anna Karenina,* and his deeply religious ideas of social reform. Pushkin, perhaps Russia's greatest poet, Dostoievsky, called the Russian Dickens, Gorky, a more modern social novelist, and Chekhov, whose plays still frequently appear in London or on Broadway, are but a few others whose writings are widely known in translation. Then too Russia has long produced fine music, enjoyed by people everywhere—the work of composers such as Tchaikowsky, Moussorgsky and Rimsky-Korsakov in old Czarist days, and Prokofiev, Shostakovich, and Katchaturian in more modern communist times. Furthermore, Russia has achieved a wonderful mastery of the art of ballet, and today some of the world's greatest ballet is danced in Moscow, before packed and eager audiences. Nor have the Ukrainians and other major Russian groups been behind in producing their own national cultural figures. Accordingly, whatever we may think of Russian shortcomings under Soviet rule, we must remember what a proud cultural tradition the Russian peoples have had, a tradition which still grows under communism.

Russia, since the First World War, and especially since the 1930's, has been going through an industrial revolution which has been pressed forward and guided by the Soviet government. This has had a tremendous effect on the daily life of the people. The Soviet government has been completely ruthless against those who have stood in the way of the sweeping change it desired. Millions have been imprisoned, deported, or have suffered loss of homes or property. For millions of others the change has meant some improvement in standards of living, though these are still far below those of North America and most of Western Europe. Until recent times, the majority of the population made its living from agriculture, although since 1939 large numbers have been swept into towns and factories. So far Moscow with about five million people, Leningrad with about three, and several others of over half a million (such as Kiev, Karkov, Baku and Odessa) are the only really large cities. Yet there are many others of middle size. And like



Official Soviet Photo

IN THE CLUBHOUSE OF A COLLECTIVE FARM

This photograph taken in the Uzbek S.S.R., shows something of the variety of racial groups within the Soviet Union.

many other countries, the U.S.S.R. has made a rapid shift from rural to urban ways of life.

On the surface, because of many features comparable to the Canadian environment—Russia's great area and northern position, her rich natural resources and broad farmlands—we may see some similarities between life as we know it in Canada and life in the Soviet Union. But the differences go much deeper than the similarities. To understand these, we must look at Russia's history, and at her government, and the communist ideas that lie behind it.

3. The Story of Russia

(a) Russian Expansion under the Czars.

Russia's known history goes back for over a thousand years. We do not know exactly when the Slav peoples settled in what is now the western part of Russia's great central plain, or just where they came from. Doubtless they came from Asia, the cradle of so many

peoples, and the great plain in which they settled was a borderland between Western Europe and the Far East.

This influence from both west and east has always been a most important fact in Russian history. For example, Christianity from the west was accepted in Russia in the early Christian centuries, but it was the Greek form which had its centre in Constantinople, and did not recognize the Pope at Rome. And the Greek Orthodox Church for centuries remained the state church in Russia, right up to the Communist Revolution of 1917. There was also some trade with the West, and a little of the culture of ancient Greece and Rome came by way of Constantinople into Russia in the early middle ages. We may recall, moreover, that it was Norsemen from Sweden who set up the first important Russian state at Kiev, and even gave the name 'Russ' to the land.

From the east, on the other hand, Russia was also greatly affected. For example, about the thirteenth century, Russia was overrun by Mongolian hordes of Tartars who ruled for over two hundred years. Only with the greatest difficulty were they thrown off. In this struggle the region around Moscow took the lead, and in 1482 Moscow became the centre of government for all Russia. It is interesting to think that European Russia was getting ready to expand eastward, just when Columbus was turning the eyes of European countries westward.

The uniting of Russia under one government was a slow hard business. As well as threats from the east, there was a long series of wars with Poland and Sweden for instance. Such threats and invasions from east and west created fear and suspicion of outsiders, which became a strong influence in Russian thinking, even to the present day. Then, inside the country, the hard climate, the great distances, and the isolation from the rest of the world made progress difficult. The small ruling class had advantages, but among the mass of the people conditions were backward and slow to change. They accepted the rule of an all-powerful emperor, or Czar. And so, for centuries Russia had a despotic form of government, with no growth of democracy, as we know it.

The greatest of all the Czars, and one of the most important men in the whole of Russian history, was Peter the Great, who ruled from 1672-1725. Peter was a remarkable, though certainly not a lovable man. He was in fact brutal, barbaric, and without scruples, conscience or morals. He was determined to unite Russia, no matter how ruthless his government had to be, and to expand her territories, especially towards the open seas. These, indeed, have been Russia's national aims ever since, whether under Czarist or communist rule.

As a boy, Peter had learned about Western European countries, and he determined to reorganize Russia along western lines. So he reformed her army, created a navy, brought in westerners to teach new methods of making and doing things, built canals and roads, and in fact attacked every problem with the most astonishing energy and zeal. He made a long trip to Western Europe, visited England, and even worked in a shipyard to see how things were done. Facing the Baltic, his new capital, St. Petersburg, was founded in 1703. Although built on marshes, like a wild man's dream, and costing tens of thousands of unfortunate workmen's lives, it became one of Europe's great cities. Today, under its present name of Leningrad, it ranks second in the U.S.S.R. only to Moscow.

In his wars and expansion, Peter pushed in every direction. He challenged, and after years of fighting, defeated Charles XII of Sweden, who had had the most powerful army in northern Europe. Thus he won a part of the southern coastline of the Gulf of Finland, while in a war with Persia he gained a foothold on the Caspian Sea.

He also had a great interest in Russia's eastward expansion to the Pacific, and it was under Peter that the famous Danish explorer, Vitus Bering, began the journeys which finally took him across Asia and the Bering Strait to Alaska and the mainland of North America, which he reached in 1741. Russia's expansion eastward had already been going on for a long time, however, since the days of Czar Ivan the Terrible, who ruled in the sixteenth

century at the same time as Elizabeth I of England. It was Ivan who added western Siberia to his possessions, and from that time traders, soldiers and explorers pushed eastward. Under Peter the Great, the Russian hold on Siberia was strengthened. Immigration and trade were encouraged. Peter also began to exile criminals and political prisoners there.

Russian expansion even went beyond Siberia and into North America. After Bering's discoveries, the Russians began to develop a valuable fur trade in Alaska, especially about the end of the eighteenth century. Then in 1804 Sitka was founded as a Russian centre in Alaska, and Russian traders ranged as far south as California. In 1823, however, Russia agreed not to claim anything on the west coast south of 54° 40′. This helped later to settle the present boundary between Alaska and British Columbia, and is therefore an important point in Canadian history. For in 1867 the United States purchased Alaska, and so took over its boundaries which had been defined under the Russians. Hence Russia, after having a foothold in North America for 126 years, withdrew to Asia. In Asia, however, Russian expansion went forward at many points in the nineteenth century, towards Persia and Afghanistan on the southwest, towards Manchuria in the Far East, and even towards the central Asian deserts of Mongolia.

Thus Russia under the Czars continued decade after decade, even century after century, to have much the same aims and characteristics. Its nobles and governing class were a privileged minority; the mass of its people made little progress. In 1861, serfdom was abolished, and about forty million peasants who had been tied to the land gained their freedom. Reforms, however, were extremely slow. Even if a Czar or his government seemed favourable for a time, they were so afraid of opposition that they usually tried to crush out every liberal idea. This, of course, only encouraged even more extreme ideas, but these were driven underground by the secret police and by exiling political prisoners to Siberia. Self-government, freedom, and the rights of the individual as understood in countries like Britain or Canada, were unknown

to the Russian people. So Russia seemed to go on and on with little real change, and misgovernment continued.

(b) The Communist Revolution and After. At the beginning of the twentieth century there began a series of changes, however, which brought on the greatest upheaval in Russian history, the Communist Revolution. The first step came with the Russo-Japanese war of 1904-5, which stemmed from a quarrel between an expanding Russia and an advancing Japan in the Far East. Russia was defeated, and as the costly and mismanaged war was unpopular among her mistreated people, there were outbursts of discontent, including mutinies in the army and navy. Reforms were demanded, and finally the Czar consented to have a national parliament or 'Duma' elected. He opposed any real reform, however, as 'senseless dreams', and although the third Duma lasted from 1907-12, little progress was made.

When the First World War broke out in 1914, therefore, Russia was ill prepared. Her government was inefficient and corrupt, her army and navy were badly equipped, and as a result she suffered great defeats at the hands of Germany. By 1917 the situation was desperate, with food shortages, mutinies in the armed forces and riots among the workers. In spite of this the Czar opposed all reform, until finally in March, 1917, the crisis came to a head, the Czar was forced to abdicate and was arrested, and a new government came in, consisting of leaders of the Duma and of a council or 'Soviet' of workmen and soldiers.

This March Revolution was carried through with little bloodshed and was hailed with joy throughout Russia. But the next few months were hectic indeed. The new government was divided, and power quickly began to change hands. Soon the most extreme kind of communist revolution was being demanded by one faction, with the abolition of all private property and rule by a 'dictatorship of the proletariat' or workers. Already in 1917, to stir up trouble, the Germans had smuggled back into Russia the two communist leaders, Lenin, who had been living in Switzerland, and Trotsky, who had been living in New York. They were the



Official Soviet Photo

Russian Horsemen in Traditional Attire

leaders of the Bolsheviks, or most extreme communists, who believed in violent revolution carried through by a small group of trained professional revolutionaries. In a second 'October Revolution' they seized power, and on November 7, 1917, a Congress of Soviets met which set up a communist dictatorship. Peace was quickly made with Germany. All opposition was put down in the most harsh manner, and a few months later the royal family was murdered, though there were still many 'White Russian' or pro-Czarist groups in Russia.

Following the end of the First World War, indeed, western nations like Britain, France and the United States sent troops or aid to White Russian groups seeking to overthrow the Bolshevik revolutionaries, the 'Red' Russians. Thus a bitter civil war was fought, and the communists only with great difficulty checked the

Whites, backed as they were by outside help. As a result, communist leaders were able to use the emergency as an excuse for their sweeping policies, and painted the war as a foreign invasion, rallying Russian national feelings to their side. Another result was that the Russian people never forgot the bloodshed and suffering of the civil war and remain to this day suspicious of the West.

In the strain of civil war, Lenin,Trotsky and Stalin became the strong men of the new communist state, and until his death in 1924, Lenin was the leader and the most powerful influence. As president of the Soviet of People's Commissars and leader of the communist party, he was the dictator of Russia, and far more powerful than the Czar had been. On his death a fierce struggle for power took place behind the scenes between Trotsky and Stalin, in which Trotsky was defeated, thrown out of the communist party in 1927, and exiled from Russia in 1928. In 1940 he was murdered by a communist opponent in Mexico. Stalin (meaning 'man of steel'), whose real name was Djugashvili, thus became head of the communist party and dictator of Russia for twenty-nine years, until his death in 1953.

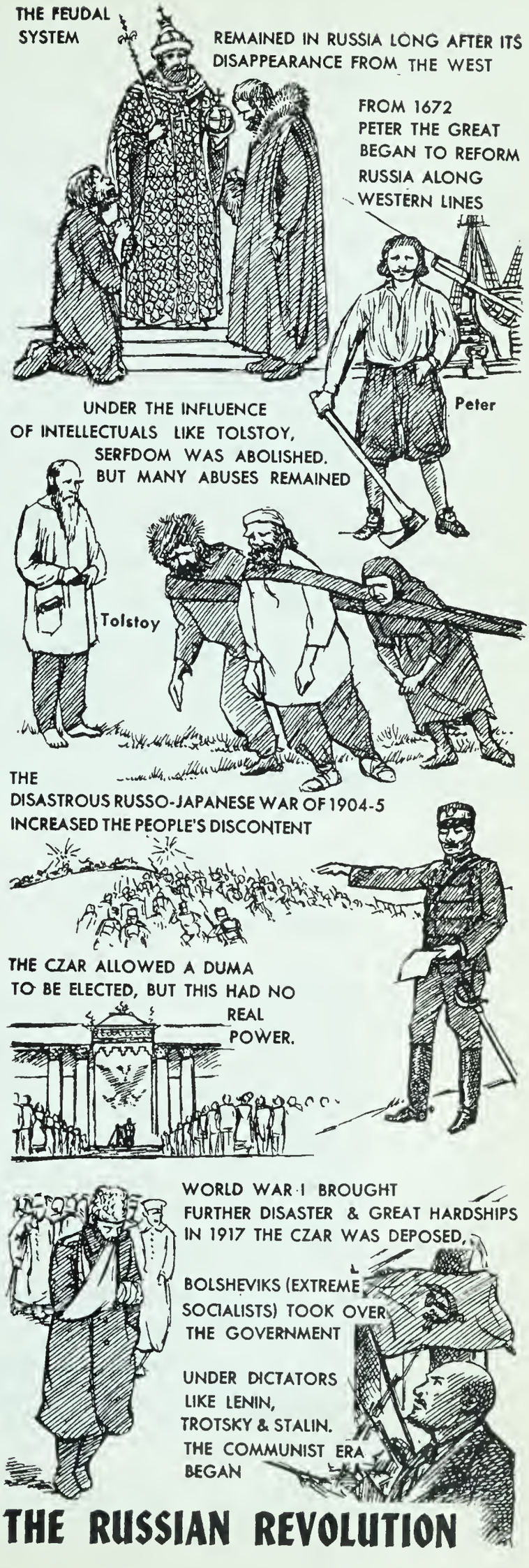
Stalin's central aim was to strengthen Russia so that it could resist attack, and could become the base for communist expansion throughout the world. Trotsky had believed in carrying on world revolution immediately, and this was one of the chief points on which they had split. In 1928, the first of a series of Five Year Plans was started, with the idea of increasing production, especially in mines and factories. Russia had never felt the full effects of the Industrial Revolution and was well behind the leading western countries in this respect.

A revolution was also forced through in agriculture. Huge state farms, 'collectives', were established under government management. The lands of richer peasants, or kulaks, were seized, and they and others who refused to co-operate were killed, driven off their lands or exiled to Siberia. In spite of grave shortages of food and materials the communist government stuck to its policy, and opposition was brutally crushed. It is estimated that ten million

were put to death or died from starvation in the famine of 1931.

By such stern methods, though they were by no means all successful, the production of the country was gradually raised. New resources were opened up and new industrial cities built, particularly in the region of the Urals. By the Second World War Russia was much stronger than it had ever been, and, in fact, far stronger than most outside experts thought it was. Many of them believed that Hitler would have an easy victory when he launched a surprise German attack on the Soviet Union in 1941. The strain put on the country by Stalin's policy had been a very terrible one, even though the mass of the Russian people were used to a low standard of living.

Stalin was, however, in a position to put down discontent or opposition with the utmost severity. As head of the communist party he controlled the government, and especially the secret police, which he did not hesitate to use even against the army. Critics were done away with by secret trials, or sometimes even without trials, or were forced to 'confess'. Russia was sealed off as much as possible from the rest of the world, and Stalin



and all his deeds were glorified by the most extreme kind of propaganda. The Russians, of course, had never experienced free government. For the Czarist dictatorship they had simply exchanged a communist one, which at least was vigorous, and they knew of nothing better.

In the Second World War nonetheless, Stalin proved himself to be an able leader. More than any other man he was responsible for Russia's resistance, even when the Germans got within fifty miles of the gates of Moscow. His policy must also receive much credit for Russia's rapid recovery, in spite of the enormous destruction caused by the war. During the thirty years after Lenin died the Industrial Revolution did, in fact, come to Russia. In 1924, for example, the production of steel was under two million tons, in 1953 it was thirty-eight million tons. Such figures are impressive, though they are not surprising if compared with the growth of production in Britain or the United States in the nineteenth century, when the Industrial Revolution also came to these countries.

Nor were the advances made in the U.S.S.R. necessarily the result of communist ideas, since Stalin never hesitated to interpret these ideas just as it suited him. For example, the idea of equality soon disappeared. Inequalities of income were encouraged in order to increase production: the so-called 'Stakhanovite' workers were given very high incomes in return for helping government officials apply the 'speed-up' to less able workers. Labour unions were, of course, completely under government control. Most wretched of all Russia's workers were the millions in concentration camps—how many it is impossible to say; estimates have run as high as twenty million. These were really slaves, whose labour was used in the most ruthless way wherever the government wished. From the Stakhanovites to the slaves of the concentration camps, Russia had far greater inequalities among its workers than the capitalist countries which it criticised.

Stalin died in March, 1953, and as his death drew near, people wondered what would happen when he departed from the scene.



Official Soviet Photo

MODERN MOSCOW

A view of the city from the Red Square.

One great weakness of dictatorships is that it is extremely difficult for them to have peaceful changes in leadership. Lenin's leadership was followed by a fight to the death between Stalin and Trotsky. Would Stalin's death be followed by the same kind of struggle? There were many signs of discontent below the surface; though how serious, it was impossible to say.

For a few weeks all seemed calm, then suddenly in June, 1953, Beria, the head of the secret police and one of Stalin's chief lieutenants, was arrested and denounced as a traitor by Malenkov, another of Stalin's lieutenants. A purge of Beria's supporters followed. A few weeks later, after the usual 'confessions', he and some of his associates were shot, and Malenkov and his friends reigned alone. This example of communist 'peaceful change' caused no

surprise, but western countries asked themselves what the future was likely to be.

Already the new government seemed to be dropping Stalin as the great hero, and claimed to be going back to the principles of Lenin. It promised also to raise the standard of living for the mass of the people, and to supply more 'consumer's goods': clothing, household articles, etc. It also made various other moves, such as opening Russia more freely to foreign travellers. There was no real sign, however, that it had dropped Lenin's and Stalin's central aims of strengthening the U.S.S.R. and making it a base for the expansion of Russian communism across the world.

4. Russian Communism and its Expansion

(a) The Communist System of Government. The word communism in its original meaning, refers to the idea of holding property in common, and in the course of history there have been many experiments along this line. The new Testament tells us, for example, that the early Christians held all things in common. Such experiments, however, have nothing to do with Russian communism as it has developed since the revolution of 1917.

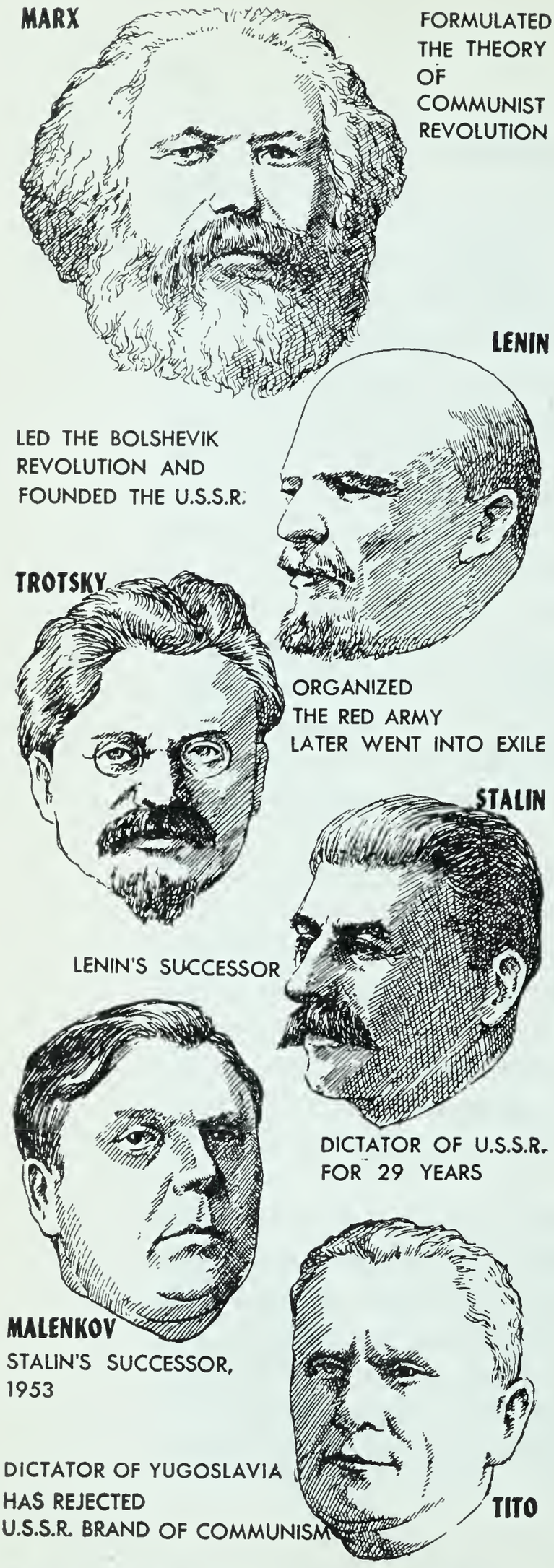
The father of modern communism was Karl Marx (1818-83). He was born in Germany of a well-to-do-family, lived for a time in France and Belgium, took part in revolutions in 1848, a notable 'year of revolutions' in Europe, and after that lived in London, where he worked on his famous book *Das Kapital.* In this book and in the document, the *Communist Manifesto,* which he drew up in 1848—both of which form a bible for all communists—Marx stated his theories of history and society. He believed that history was working towards a communist society by revolutions, of which there had already been many, and in which one class of people in society overthrew another. Capitalism and private property, he

believed, were finally bound to be overthrown and replaced by a 'dictatorship of the proletariat'. (Proletariat meant the workers who lived by wages and had no property of their own.) This dictatorship would then bring in a perfect communist society, where peace would prevail and the state would 'wither away', or in other words, government would become unnecessary.

This impractical idea of working towards a perfect society by revolution and violence has nevertheless made an appeal to many discontented people, especially in the twentieth century when the world has been so greatly upset by the effects of two world wars, and by extreme nationalism and other forces of unrest. Marx thought that the communist revolution would come first in the more advanced and highly industrialized countries like France or Germany. In this, as in many other respects, he was wrong. Communism came first in Russia, which was an economically backward country with no history of democracy or self-government, and it has made its greatest appeal in backward countries where there was much poverty and misery and people could readily be stirred up by agitators.

Communist revolutions have not been made, however, by the mass of the people, but by small groups of professional revolutionaries belonging to the communist party. This was Lenin's idea, and in this as in many other ways he added to, and interpreted, Marx's theories. Marx's theories were very general in many respects, so that it was possible to have great differences of opinion about them. Thus in Russia the way to communism came to be whatever Lenin or Stalin said it was—a very convenient situation for a dictator to be in!

In fact, Yugloslavia under the communist dictator Marshal Tito broke away from Russian communism in 1948, on the ground that Russia itself was no longer following the principles of Marx, and that Yugoslavia intended to do so. Trotsky and his followers also opposed Stalin's Russian communism. Whether there will be other forms of communism, breaking away from Russian control, remains to be seen. Communist China is a great question mark in



KARL MARX & SOME DISCIPLES

this respect. To members of communist parties in all countries except Yugoslavia, however, Russia is the great example to be followed, even if this means being a traitor to one's own country. Let us see, therefore, how communist government works in the U.S.S.R.

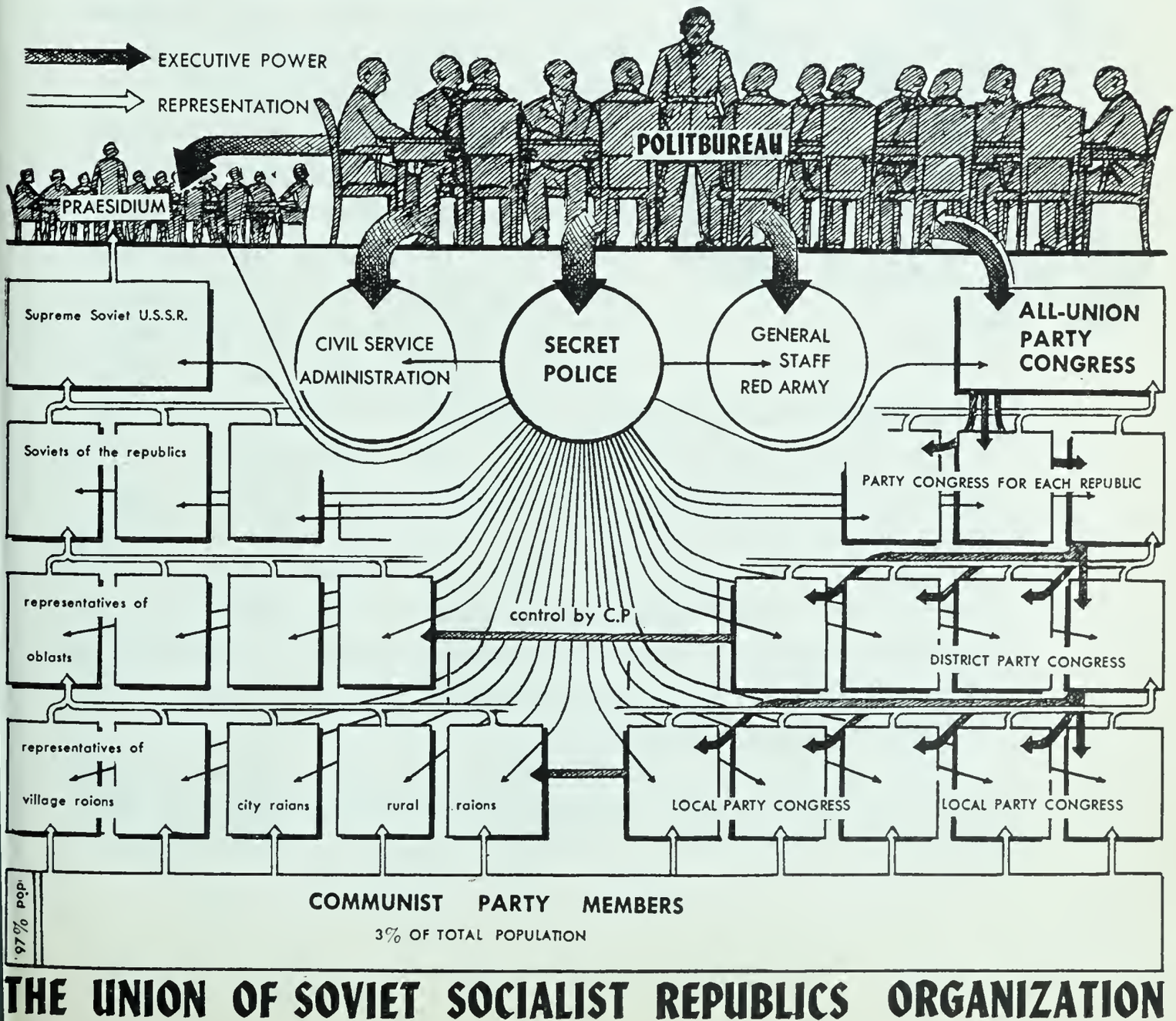
The U.S.S.R. consists of sixteen Soviet Socialist Republics of which the R.S.F.S.R.—the Russian Soviet Federal Socialist Republic—is by far the largest. These are all governed under a constitution, adopted in 1936, which on the face of it has many democratic features. Actually the government is a dictatorship, and the word 'democracy' means to the communist almost exactly the opposite of what it does to us, which is, of course, the reason why communists can claim that they are champions of democracy, when they are actually working for dictatorship.

The Russian communist system of government has three parts: the elective part, the administrative part, and the communist party where the real power rests.

The elective part consists of a kind of pyramid of Soviets or Councils of which the highest is the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R.—in plan, at least, something like

the American Congress or the Canadian Parliament. Each republic also has its supreme Soviet. In each republic are many oblasts (roughly provinces), each with its Soviet; and in each oblast are rural raion (or county) Soviets, city raion (or district) Soviets, and countless village Soviets. There are thus thousands of 'elected' representatives in the Soviets large and small. These elected representatives are, however, very different from Canadian elected representatives, first because they have no real power, and second because of the way in which they are elected.

Since the communist party is the only political party allowed in the country, there are no opposition candidates and people can only vote for or against the candidates who are named. It takes some courage to vote against, and it is little wonder that candidates



are elected by 98 or 99 per cent of the vote. This then is what the communists know as 'democracy', but such elections are worse than useless from our point of view. Yet they serve the purpose of the communist party. The Soviet leaders are masters of propaganda, and they study carefully every method of whipping up popular support.

In March, 1954, a new Supreme Soviet was elected. For its two chambers there were 1,331 candidates, 80 per cent of whom belonged to the Soviet upper class of officials and other carefully chosen members of the communist party. It was not therefore a representative, or freely elected body in our sense. The Supreme Soviet also sits for only four or five days, as compared with, for example, 243 for the Canadian Parliament of 1951. It is thus a rubber stamp with no time or power to debate important questions or to make decisions of its own.



The Supreme Soviet has a directing body or Praesidium of forty-two members, with a President who is in theory the head of the country, like the President of the United States. It is supposed to have some control over the departments of government, as a cabinet would have in our parliamentary system, but in fact it has none.

The second part of the Soviet system of government is the administration. This consists, as in other lands, of all the departments of government that carry out the varied tasks of running the country. The civil service that works in these departments is enormous in the U.S.S.R., because there is little private property and the government controls everything. There is a Council of Ministers made up of the heads of departments, but it also is controlled by the communist party.

When we come to the communist party, we come to the real centre of power in the Soviet system. It is very different in a

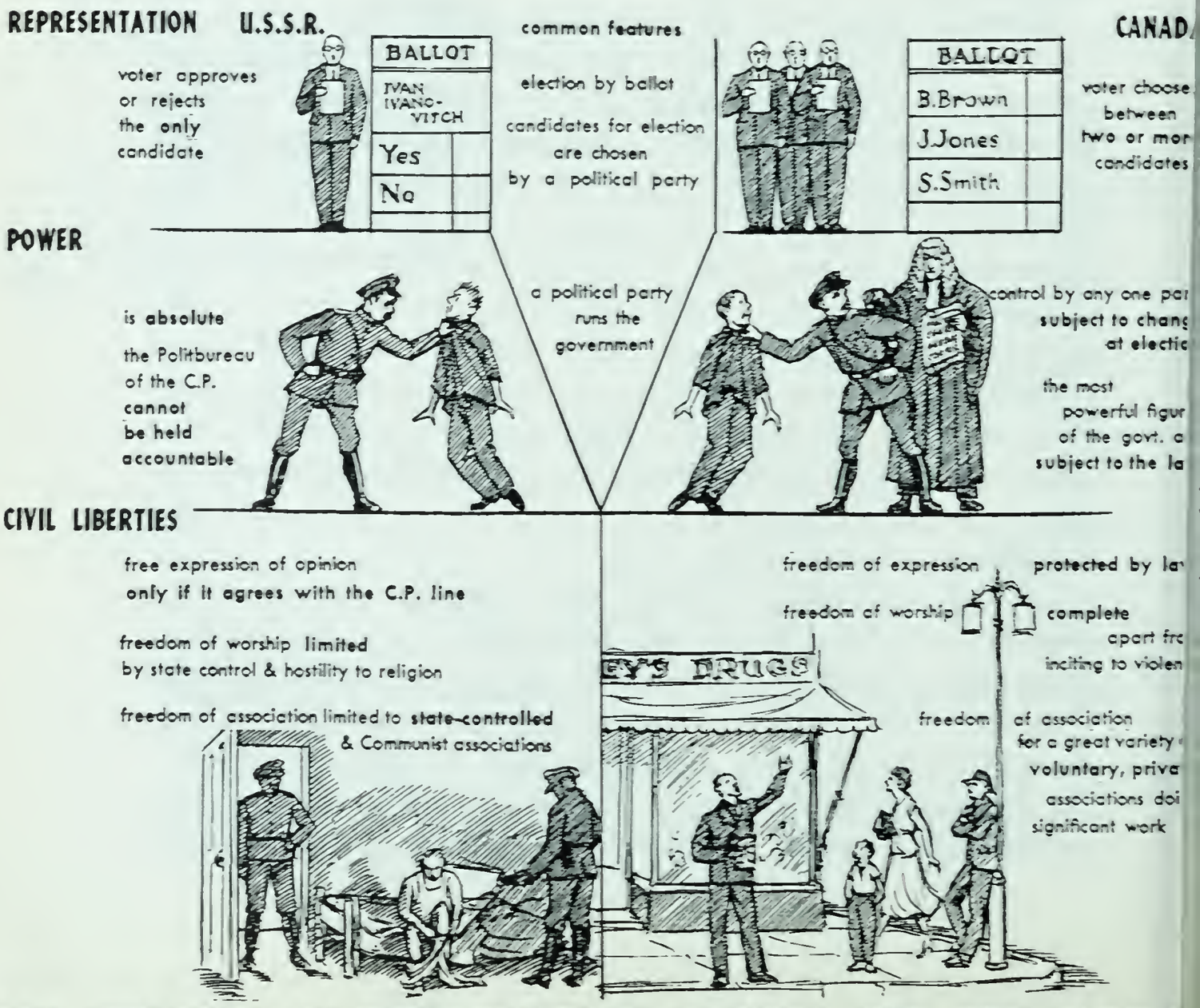
number of ways from a political party in a country like Canada. Not only is it the only party allowed, but it is quite small compared to the total population, less than six million out of about two hundred million. To get in is not easy. Members must be fanatical communists, and their number is small since only a few can be expected to understand Marx's theories and to know what is best for the people—for, according to communist ideas, the people cannot be expected to know this themselves and must be led by the party. Communists, then, control all the important government posts, local and central, as well as forming most of the Supreme Soviet. That is why elected bodies can have no power, since they simply have to accept what the communist party wants—while the communist officials follow the orders handed down to them from the party leaders.

Above all, members of the party must do what they are told and must rigidly follow the correct 'party line' of policy, thought and action as given them from above. This is not always easy and may, indeed, be dangerous when, for example, the party leaders suddenly change their minds, or when some leader like Beria is 'liquidated'. Thousands of communists have in such cases found themselves on the wrong side of the fence, and have been executed or exiled or thrown out of office. Being a party member has great advantages, however, to anyone who is willing to be a blind fanatic, without any feelings of honour or loyalty except to the party. Party members are really the aristocracy of the U.S.S.R., with power and privileges which put them in a special position—another sign of the great inequality to be found in this communist land that claims to make everyone equal.

Like so much else in Russia, the communist party has some appearance of being democratic, but in fact is not. Members are elected to committees, for example, and to an All-Union Party Congress which is supposed to meet every three years but does not do so. Actually, all power is in the hands of the Political Bureau of the Party—the 'Politbureau' of communist leaders, which usually numbers about twelve, and which can easily keep itself in power

as long as its members do not quarrel among themselves. Stalin was master of this group, and because of this could turn Russia into a one-man dictatorship. Following Stalin's death, no one man took his place. The bitter struggle that broke out behind the scenes between Beria and other members of the Politbureau ended with Beria's overthrow by Malenkov and his associates, so that Russia, whether it has a Stalin or not, is still a dictatorship under communism.

(b) Communism versus Freedom. One of the worst features of Communist rule is its treatment of the individual and his rights. In Canada and Britain these rights, or civil liberties, as we call them, are at the basis of our democracy, and we know that if they are really in danger, then democracy itself is in danger. Civil



THE PRACTICE OF DEMOCRACY IN CANADA AND THE U.S.S.R

liberties include such things as freedom of speech, freedom of the press, freedom to worship and to teach one's religion to others, including one's children, the right not to be imprisoned without the charge being stated, the right to a fair and public trial, and the right to trial by jury. Most important, perhaps, because it includes so many of the others, is the fact that Canadians live under the 'rule of law', as we have noted before. This means especially that no government official or other person is above the ordinary law, and that government officials, however powerful, have no right to set aside the laws of the land and do as they please.

Sometimes in periods of crisis such as war, our civil rights and liberties have to be reduced. We may have to have the news censored, for instance, or the government may have to imprison spies or other dangerous persons without trial. Where such things are done, however, it must only be while the crisis lasts. In a true democracy civil rights will be restored as quickly as possible.

In Russia, under communist rule, the situation is quite different. As in other dictatorships, the citizen does not live under the 'rule of law' in our sense of the term. It is true, as stated in the Soviet constitution, that he is supposed to have some of these rights, but in fact he lives in a 'police state', where the government as controlled by the Politbureau is above the ordinary law and is a law to itself. For example, freedom of worship is allowed, the churches are open, and people can attend them. But freedom to teach or discuss religion is severely restricted, for communist theory rejects and distrusts religion as teaching people false ideas about God and the rights of the individual. In fact, for some years after the revolution of 1917, the Soviet Union forbade religious freedom and taught atheism, which denies the existence of a God.

Similarly freedom of speech is allowed within narrow limits, and workers are even sometimes encouraged to criticize such things as the management of factories or the conduct of unimportant officials. This kind of thing, of allowing people to let off steam harmlessly, is an old trick of dictatorships to keep down discontent. Anything which the secret police consider, however, to be criticism of

the government or the communist party is likely to lead to the swift 'disappearance' of the critic. Similarly there are trials for ordinary crimes or breaches of the law which may be fair enough, but if secret police or government officials feel that the person has done something which is critical of, or dangerous to the government, he will be transferred to courts behind closed doors to be tried in secret, perhaps forced by drugs or other methods to 'confess', and be sentenced to any punishment which government officials may wish. Thousands of persons have disappeared in this way.

Such rule cannot be democratic, however many people go and vote in elections. Where government and its officials are above the law and can make it what they please, where the individual has no rights or liberties which may not be taken away at the whim of those in authority, where people live in fear of secret police, secret trials, concentration camps and executions, there can be no freedom or democratic government in any true meaning of the term.

We can now understand better the reasons for the aggressive expansion of Russian communism, during and after the Second World War. Using the ruthlessness of the police state and the blind zeal of party members, it expanded its power in four main ways:

(1) By absorbing borderlands all around the U.S.S.R. and organising them into republics which, however, are completely tied to Moscow by the communist party in the ways we have described above. These borderlands in some cases belonged to Czarist Russia, and they include in the west Lithuania, Latvia and Estonia which were independent countries between the First and Second World Wars. Parts of Finnish territory were also added to the U.S.S.R. when Finland was defeated by Russia in the Second World War.

(2) By organising communist parties in the 'satellite' countries —supposedly independent countries that are really completely tied to Russian control. Poland, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Bulgaria and Romania fall into this group. They were occupied by Russian troops at the end of the Second World War, and Russia took advantage of this to organize communist parties and to set up dictatorships with

secret police, etc., which could be controlled from Moscow. The same tactics were also used in East Germany. Yugoslavia, too, was a satellite country, until Marshal Tito decided to throw off Russian control.

(3) By the victory of communism in China. We will study this in Unit Nine.

(4) By organising communist parties in every part of the world, including the democratic countries, which work both secretly and openly in all kinds of ways to increase communist influence and expand Russian power—for these to the fanatical communist are one and the same thing.

It is thus clear that the Moscow-directed communist party, with its methods of dictatorship, is the most powerful weapon of Russian, or international, communism. It works in many different ways in various parts of the world, but always with the aim of finally gaining control and establishing a communist dictatorship. Thus we find communists, in order to gain popular support in some countries, arguing for civil liberties which would never be allowed under communist government. To the communist there is nothing inconsistent in this so long as it increases the influence of the communist party where he is working.

Where they are not in power, communists also seek co-operation with other parties in demanding reforms, or in creating 'communist front' organizations. The communist 'peace' movement has been one of the most important of these. To the communist, 'peace' can only mean in the long run the triumph of communist rule, since he must believe in Marx's and Lenin's ideas of world revolution. Such co-operation with others therefore will last only as long as it is necessary. There can be no genuine co-operation, since the communist is prevented by his ideas from believing in true compromise. Stalin made a great point of peaceful 'co-existence' with other nations, but this meant living in peace only while carrying on the 'cold war' and working wherever possible towards communist revolution.

The most striking case of 'co-operation' was the communist

revolution in Czechoslovakia in 1948. This was a lesson to the free world. In 1943 Stalin promised by treaty that Russia would not interfere in the internal affairs of Czechoslovakia after the war, and in 1945 when the Germans were driven out of Czechoslovakia Dr. Benes, the Czech leader, returned to his country and formed a government of six parties, including the communists, called the National Front. He believed the Russian and Czech communist promises of co-operation.

But the communists, although they were a minority, demanded the most important offices in the cabinet, and when they got them, gained control of the police and other important posts of government. Step by step the position of President Benes and the other parties was completely undermined. The majority of the people were against communism, and when it appeared to the communists in the spring of 1948 that they would lose the next election, they seized power, forced Benes to resign, and created a communist dictatorship with the usual methods of the secret police, trials of 'traitors' and so forth. Thus the experiment of co-operation came to an end. Within the next four years, also, most of the Czech and Slovak communist leaders who had carried through this revolution were themselves charged with being traitors, and the principal ones were condemned to death. So the Czecho-Slovak communist party was made over to suit the orders of Moscow, and Czechoslovakia was brought into a state of 'co-existence' with the Soviet Union.



WORLD EXPANSION OF COMMUNISM

The communist party is, of course, not the only source of communism's strength. Communism has attracted followers in many countries by other means: by its promises of a perfect society sometime in the future, by its argu-

ments that revolution and dictatorship are the way towards this perfect society, and also by its promises of immediate reforms and better standards of living. These last promises make an appeal in countries where there is widespread poverty, or discontent, or bitterness from such things as racial hatred, as in some parts of Africa or South East Asia. Communist rule has in some places brought about reforms for a time, such as more education for the mass of people, or re-distribution of land. These reforms are always aimed, however, at the strengthening of the communist party, and the benefit of those who hold control.

Where communism has faced a strong democracy, as in Canada, it has failed. We know that Canadian democracy is not perfect, but it is an ideal of living and government towards which we can strive, and which we must always protect if we are to keep it at all. Communism or any other kind of dictatorship, far from bringing progress or prosperity, would turn the wheels back. Communism however, cannot be destroyed by force or by driving it underground. It must be combatted by better ideas and by creating better conditions. And so Canadians have big responsibilities in this respect; first, to themselves, to understand democracy and to make it work; second, to the other democratic nations, to co-operate with them fully in every effort which will strengthen the free world; and third, to any other nation which needs our help and encouragement in creating better governments and conditions of life for its people. If the peoples of the democracies keep these points in mind, they need have no fear of being overwhelmed by Russian communism's aggressive expansion.

Learn by Doing

1. Write a brief note, describing the Arctic, which might have been written by Franklin. (1, a)
2. Four pupils prepare an imaginary radio interview with one of the following: Frobisher, Davis, Baffin or Hudson. (1, b)
3. Have a committee present a report about conditions in the Arctic from Stefansson's book, *The Friendly Arctic.*
4. Plan an imaginary trip up the Alaska Highway. Discuss what might be seen on the way. (1, b)
5. Prepare a map of Russia showing its main surface features. (2,a)
6. In a class discussion, compare Russia under the Czars with Russia under communism. (3, a and b)
7. Discuss Russian methods of bringing about reforms and compare them with the way in which reforms are made in Canada. (3, b)
8. "Communism was to bring about equality among the peoples of Russia." Discuss this statement and Russia's success in achieving equality. (3, b)
9. Compare communism and democracy as forms of government. (4, a)
10. Discuss the effect that Tito's break with Russian communism might have on other communist countries. (4, a)
11. Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of a one party system of government as compared with a system where more than one party exists. (4, a)
12. Contrast freedom as we know it in Canada with the freedom known by Soviet citizens. (4, b)
13. Discuss ways in which communists try to gain influence in countries outside of Russia. (4, b)

Facts to Know

1. List three reasons for the importance of Canada's Arctic regions. (1, a)
2. Describe briefly the attempt made by each of the following to reach the North Pole: Nansen, Andrée, Robert Peary. (1, b)

3. Describe the contribution made by Canadian bush pilots in the Canadian North. (1, b)

4. What have been the duties of the R.C.M.P. in the Canadian North? (1, b)

5. List efforts undertaken recently by the Canadian government to become better acquainted with the North. (1, b)

6. What effect has climate had on the development of the U.S.S.R.? (2, a)

7. (a) The U.S.S.R. is a country comprising many national or ethnic groups. Compare her problems arising out of this fact with similar problems in Canada. (2, b)

   (b) In what ways are Canada's surface features and climate similar to those of Russia? (2, a)

8. (a) In what way was early Russia influenced from: (a) the west, (b) the east? (3, a)

   (b) What were some of the difficulties in uniting Russia? (3, a)

9. Describe Russia's foothold in North America during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. (3, a)

10. (a) What were some of the main causes of the communist revolt in 1917? (3, b)

    (b) Who were Lenin and Trotsky? (3, b)

11. Name some of the improvements which Stalin made in Russia. (3, b)

12. What changes in government policy did Malenkov introduce after Stalin's death? (3, b)

13. What was Karl Marx's contribution to communism? (4, a)

14. Describe briefly the way in which communist revolutions are organized. (4, a)

15. In what way do Canadian elected representatives of government differ from those in Russia? (4, a)

16. (a) In what ways does the Supreme Soviet of Russia differ from the Canadian Parliament? (4, a)
    (b) How does the communist party in the U.S.S.R. differ from a political party in Canada? (4, a)
    (c) What is the Politbureau? (4, a)

17. In what four ways did Russian communism expand during and after the Second World War? (4, b)

18. Outline the way in which the communists gained control of Czechoslovakia in 1948. (4, b)

19. What are the best means of combatting communism? (4, b)

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UNIT NINE

CANADA LOOKS ACROSS THE PACIFIC TO ASIA

1. Our New Interest in Asian Lands
2. Asian Lands and Peoples
3. Asia's Contributions to the World
4. Asia in the Present Age

1. Our New Interest in Asian Lands

(a) An Important Canadian Visits Asia. "Today we are vitally concerned with what happens in Asia. Decisions taken there, and the welfare and happiness of these peoples have become of real concern to us." These were Prime Minister St. Laurent's words as he left Canada early in 1954, to make a good-will trip around the world, and especially to those countries in Asia with which Canada has friendly relations. "We wish," he said, "to show that we value their friendship." Mr. St. Laurent left not as the leader of one party, but with the approval of all parties in Canada's Parliament. Indeed, he represented the whole Canadian people and carried the good will of all.

In this 24,000-mile, six-week trip Mr. St. Laurent touched many countries and many important and historic places. In London, at the heart of the Commonwealth, he talked with Britain's Prime

Minister, Sir Winston Churchill. In France, Germany and Italy he met the Presidents of these leading Western European republics, and in Paris visited also the headquarters of NATO. Flying from Rome to Bahrein on the Persian Gulf, he crossed some of the most ancient lands of the Middle East with their age-old caravan routes and their modern oil wells. And then at Karachi, Pakistan's modern-looking capital, he came at length to South Asia, and the first of Canada's Asian Commonwealth partners to be visited.

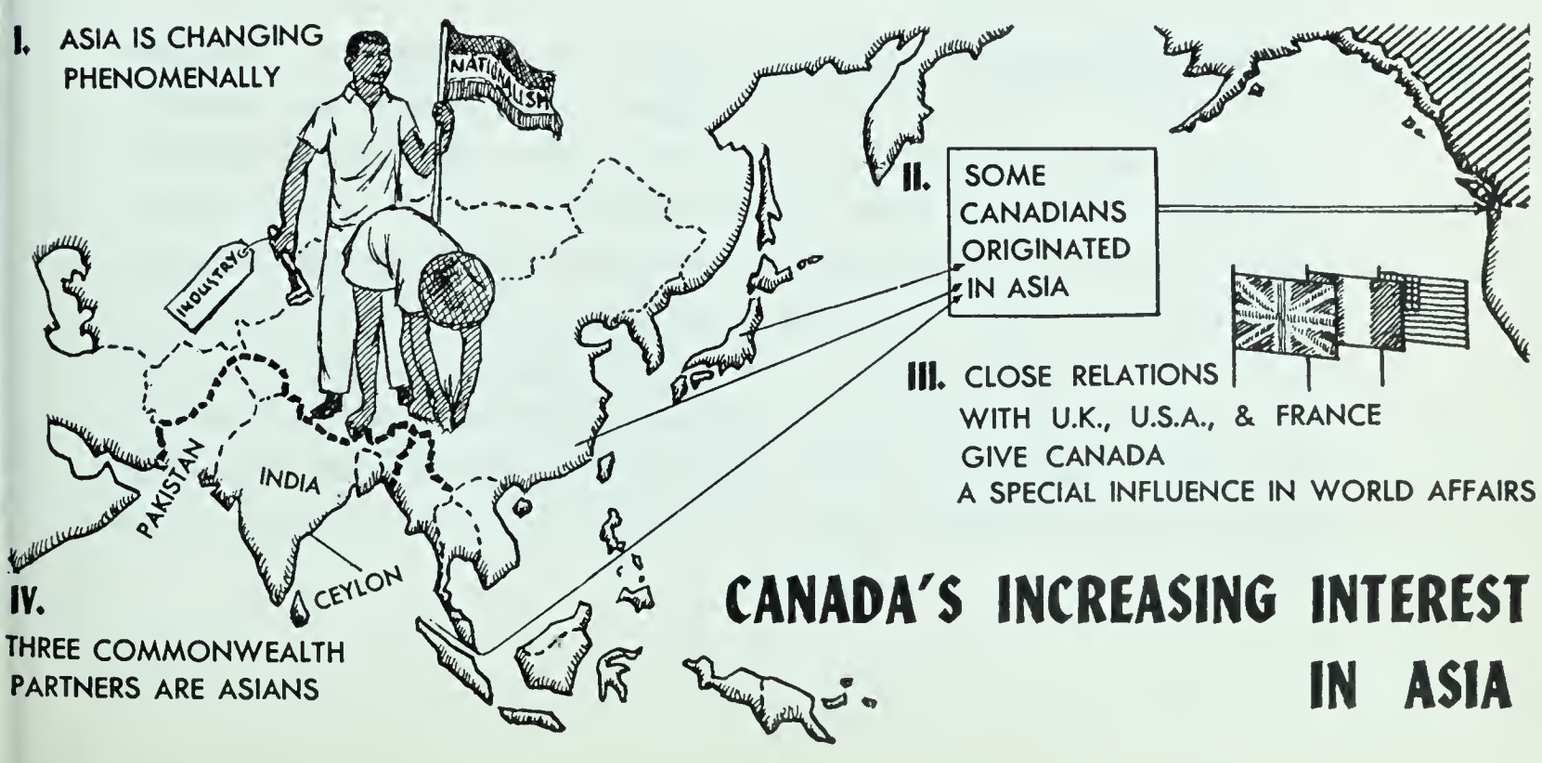
Here the mixture of Asian and western dress, and the camels, bullocks and donkey carts mingling with trucks, bicycles, and motor cars in the busy streets, showed that another world had been entered. Yet, in spite of all such differences—as the Prime Minister told Canada's Parliament later—he found everywhere proof that "men, women, and children are much the same all the world over." From Karachi, travelling north and east across the sun-baked plains of the Punjab, home of the proud warrior-people, the Sikhs, Mr. St. Laurent's party came to the old and beautiful city of Lahore, with its crowded bazaars, its craftsmen working in their little shops, its old fort and great red mosque. Still further north, Peshawar was visited, and the famous Khyber Pass that leads through the mountains into Afghanistan. For many centuries this was a gateway for invaders from Central Asia into the rich plains of India—and so it might be again.

From Pakistan, the party went to Canada's other Commonwealth partners in Asia, India and Ceylon. In Delhi, India's capital, there were talks with Prime Minister Nehru, and visits to Delhi's famous Red Fort, and to nearby Agra with its Taj Mahal, perhaps the world's most beautiful building. In all these countries, our Prime Minister saw the various ways in which Canada's money, given to the Colombo Plan, is being used, and he talked with Canadians who are working under the Colombo Plan or under the United Nations helping to improve, for example, Ceylon's fisheries and Pakistan's wheat-growing. Later he said to Parliament, "We have much that we can pass on to those great nations, of the

East, but there has been developed there long before our era much that could be used by us in our own lives."

From Ceylon, the journey continued to Indonesia, one of Asia's newest republics, to the Philippines, to war-torn Korea, where the Prime Minister visited Canadian troops serving under the United Nations, and to Japan, where he was not only entertained by the Emperor, but greeted by thousands of children lining the streets waving Canadian and Japanese paper flags, and looking very happy indeed. "Perhaps", he told Parliament, "that was because it was during school hours. Nevertheless I had the impression that these thousands of youngsters were being made aware that there was a country called Canada, and that that country wants to be their friend, and wants them to be our friends." Such friendly feelings were found everywhere on the journey. "I want to assure the honourable members," the Prime Minister said in Parliament, "that everywhere I went as a representative of Canada I was received with enthusiasm and every evidence of friendliness and goodwill."

(b) Changing Asia Today. Such a trip had never before been made by a Canadian Prime Minister, and even twenty years earlier it would scarcely have been thought of. What then were the reasons for it? One certainly is that Canada's position in international affairs has grown so much more important than it was before the Second World War; for next to the half dozen or



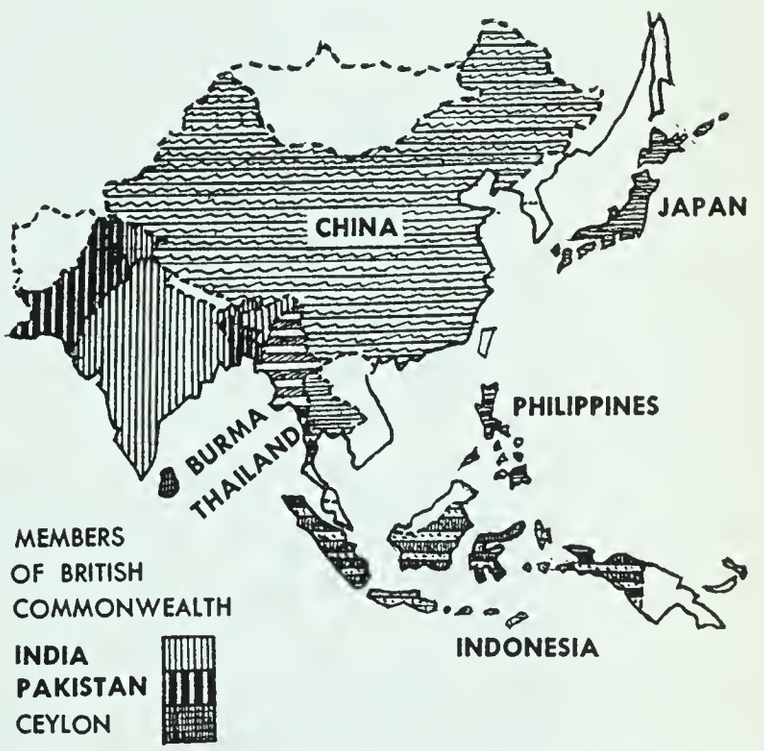
so Great Powers, Canada is now one of the world's chief nations, and her close relations with Great Britain, the United States, and France give her a place of special influence in world affairs. Furthermore, she is known to be peaceful and friendly. She has shown no desire to conquer or control anyone else, and so she is trusted by Asian nations like India and the Philippines that still remember conquest by western powers. Canada, said a Delhi paper at the time of Mr. St. Laurent's visit, may become an interpreter between the nations of Asia and the West. Such friendly feelings were encouraged by the good-will journey of Canada's Prime Minister, and this was one important reason for making it.

A second reason might well have been that Canada appreciated the ancient culture of the Far East, and felt bonds, too, linking her in this direction—for although most Canadians find their origins in Europe, some have their ancestors in Asian lands, in China, Japan and India. Chinese and Japanese Canadians are scattered all across our country and work at many occupations, 'East' Indians, especially Sikhs, are mainly found in British Columbia, to which they emigrated across the Pacific. At one time Japanese Canadians were also concentrated in this province, chiefly in the fishing industry. But in the Second World War fears of attack from Japan (and not always reasonable fears of their disloyalty) led to an official policy of uprooting them and sending them inland. Unfortunately racial discrimination played some part in this feeling against the Japanese.

Indeed, because the Asian immigrants were often first brought to Canada as a source of 'cheap labour' some people have tended to regard them as 'second-class citizens'. Nevertheless industrious and able Chinese and Japanese Canadians have done much to win a better reputation for themselves. And so Canada's respect for our Asian citizens, and their Asian homelands, is properly increasing. In any case, the fact that we do have Canadians in our midst of Asian origin naturally helps to arouse our interest in Far Eastern lands—and should, therefore, have had some influence on the Prime Minister's Asian tour.

But a third, and far more important reason for such a good-will visit are the striking developments which are taking place in Asia. Asia's hundreds of millions of people are in a ferment of change. A new Asia is rising, and Canadians are looking across the Pacific with a new interest, for events are happening there which will affect the whole world. Changing Asia! Today Asia is going through the most rapid and most far-reaching transformation in her history. How great the change has been is shown by the number of countries which became independent after the Second World War, and also by other alterations in Asia's political map.

Of special interest to Canada are her three Asian Commonwealth partners which gained complete self-government soon after the Second World War: India and Pakistan in 1947, and Ceylon in 1948. India became a republic in 1950, but still chose to remain in the Commonwealth. In 1948, also, the British colony of Malaya became the Federation of Malaya with rights of self-government except for defence and external affairs. So Malaya took a long step towards full membership in the Commonwealth. In 1948, too, Burma, which had been a part of Britain's Indian possessions, became a republic; but chose to leave the Commonwealth, which she had freedom to do if she wished. These remarkable events affected over 460 million people who had been under British rule. No empire had ever before given self-government peacefully to so many people.



ASIA: INDEPENDENT NATIONS

It was not only Britain's possessions that were affected by the rapid changes following the Second World War. In 1946 the United States gave the Philippine Islands their independence, and

three years later the Dutch East Indies became the Republic of Indonesia. So two more republics were added to the list of Asia's independent countries. Two other cases turned out less well, however. Following Japan's defeat in the Second World War, Korea was freed from Japanese rule, but its division between a communist government in the north and an anti-communist government in the south, led finally to war in 1950, between the two opposed sections. The fact that so many nations, including Canada, were drawn into this Korean war, shows that events in Asia are no longer far away, but that they vitally affect the peace of the whole world. The other case was in Indo-China, where France after the war promised more self-government to her territories, but here soon found herself entangled in another bitter war between communists and anti-communists.

The Second World War brought very great changes also to Japan and China. Because of her defeat, Japan lost control not only of Korea and many small islands in the South Pacific, but also of the large and rich territory of Manchuria, which she had taken from China some years before and which was now returned to China in 1945. China also gained control in 1951 of the strange mountain land of Tibet, high up in the Himalayas. Tibet is one of Asia's smaller countries, with a population of scarcely four millions, but it has significance as a next-door neighbour to India. Most important of all the changes in China was, however, the victory of the Chinese communist party in 1949, which brought mainland China with its vast population of over four hundred millions under communist rule. General Chiang Kai-Shek, the leader of the Chinese Nationalist forces, who was defeated in his struggle with the communists, then retired with his army to the island of Formosa.

All these events within a few years altered almost completely the political map of Asia. But it is not only boundaries and governments that have been changing. Asia has been passing through a vast revolution in the aims and ideas of its people, and this is far more important in the long run than changes in government. Asia

in its long history has had many political revolutions, but usually they were changes in rulers with little effect on the life of the common people. Today this is not so; Asia is stirred to its depths by new thoughts and hopes. Not only do its peoples demand self-government; they demand to be freed from their ancient enemies of poverty, disease, and fear of starvation.

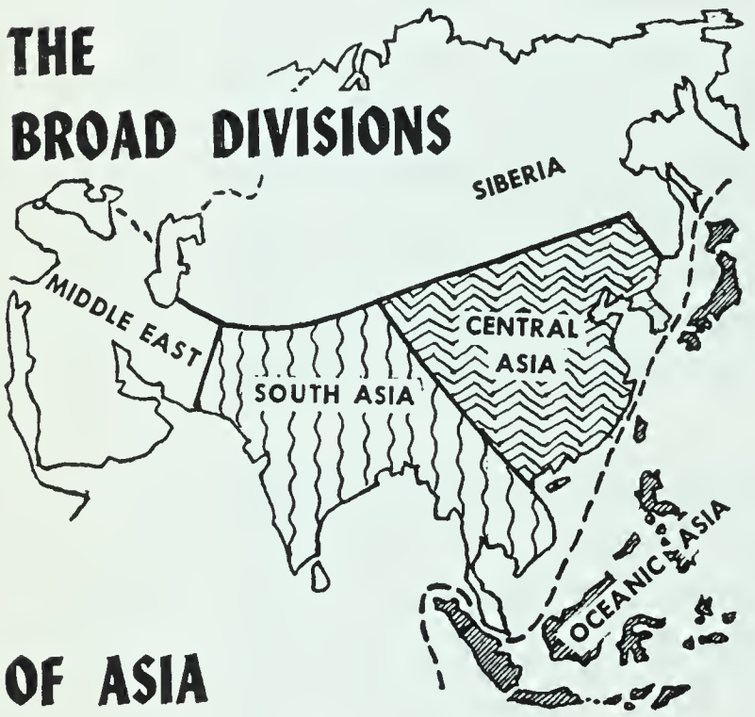
In India, for example, one can see almost everywhere how new ideas are reaching into the minds of the people in all sorts of ways. In the towns and cities, motion pictures, radio, and newspapers bring ideas even to those who cannot read. In fact India has one of the largest motion picture industries in the world. In the streets and on the land people see machinery and new ways of doing things, very different from the hand labour used for centuries. Machinery helps to dig the new irrigation canals; trucks and buses mingle with camels and bullock carts on the roads. Even in the little villages, which cling so closely to old ways, one can see signs of change. And India and other Asian countries are everywhere being stirred with hopes of a better life and a higher standard of living.

This is a revolution in hopes and thoughts, and never before has such a revolution stirred so many hundreds of millions of people. Asia with her ancient civilizations is waking to new life, and perhaps this may prove to be for the world the most important event of this twentieth century. But to understand the vast changes which are taking place in Asia, we must know something about her lands and peoples and something about her thousands of years of history.

2. Asian Lands and Peoples

(a) The Chief Asian Regions and Countries. Asia, the world's largest continent, in its full extent stretches over 5,000 miles north and south from the Arctic to the Malay

Peninsula, and almost 6,000 miles east and west from the Mediterranean and the Ural Mountains to the Pacific. Of course, this huge expanse includes the wide Soviet territories of Siberia on the north, and, on the west, Turkey and other countries of the Middle East, all of which we have previously examined. In this unit, therefore, we are dealing not with the whole of Asia, but largely with southern, central and eastern Asia. This area is certainly large enough to be dealt with by itself, but there is another reason besides. It is the homeland of the vast mass of Asian peoples, and for thousands of years, in spite of its divisions, it has had a kind of unity of its own. When Asian people say, "Asia for the Asians," this is the area they are talking about.



This great area divides into three main geographic regions. The first two are on the mainland, and we may call them Central and South Asia. The third, Oceanic Asia, consists of the thousands of islands which stretch north and south along the eastern coasts and on into the Pacific. The greatest natural division lies between Central and South Asia, and this is the vast mass of the Himalaya Mountains which stretches roughly east and west for about 1,500 miles, from the borders of Afghanistan to Burma. There, in this 'roof of the world', are the earth's highest peaks, including Mount Everest, the tallest of all (29,000 feet), which remained unconquered by climbers until a British-New Zealand party with helpers from Nepal succeeded in scaling it in 1953. Tibet, long a land of mystery, lies high in the towering Himalayas. Even its valleys are higher than the loftiest mountains of many other countries. Nepal, between Tibet and India, is also a Himalayan country. Little Nepal is friendly with Britain, and from its famous

Gurkha tribes came many of the best soldiers to the Indian armies in the days of British rule. To the west, rugged Afghanistan, like Nepal and Tibet, is not easy to enter. On its northern and eastern sides it is cut off by mountains, among them the range of the Hindu Kush, and on the west and south by barren deserts. Of the few roads leading into it, the chief is the famous Khyber Pass road from Peshawar to Afghanistan's age-old Moslem capital, Kabul. The great mountain barrier of the Himalayas and the Hindu Kush has through the centuries been a protection to India, even though it has not always prevented invasions from the north. So clearly does it separate India from the rest of the Asian continent that the big and densely populated Indian peninsula is often called a 'sub-continent' in itself.

In broad outline, the Indian sub-continent is rimmed by high mountain slopes on the northeast and northwest, has the wide plains of the Indus and Ganges valleys across its centre, and in the south contains the rolling plateau known as the Deccan. The low-lying central plains are very fertile where they receive sufficient water from the rain-bearing monsoon winds, although large parts of them to the west are hot, dry desert, because here the monsoon rains do not penetrate. The Deccan is also hot and fairly dry, but the Ganges valley, and the northeastern districts in particular, have exceedingly heavy rain. One notable result of this is that West Pakistan, on one side of the republic of India, is generally quite arid and much of it is desert, while wet East Pakistan, on the other side, grows quite heavy crops. The Indian republic itself has many variations in climate, from the cool northern mountain valleys of Kashmir to the tropic heat of the Deccan. It has its extremes in rainfall too; but in general the well-watered or irrigated stretches of India's vast central plains support an enormous population. Here are situated some of the chief cities of the sub-continent: Lahore, Delhi, Benares and Calcutta. Other great cities, like Karachi, Bombay and Madras, are on the low-lying coasts.

India and Pakistan are the most important and most advanced portions of South Asia, though the richly fertile island of Ceylon, at

the bottom of the subcontinent, is also rising in significance as a new South Asian nation. But to the east of these countries lies another part of South Asia, an area which juts out into tropical seas in a series of mountain-ridged peninsulas, and which includes Burma, Indo-China, Siam (or Thailand) and Malaya. This particular region is often termed South-East Asia. A glance at the map will show that it bears some famous and romantic names: the exotic cities of Mandalay and Rangoon in Burma; Bangkok, Siam's capital and chief seaport, famed for its ornate Buddhist



SOUTH, CENTRAL & OCEANIC ASIA PHYSICAL FEATURES

temples; and Singapore, the great British naval base and commercial city on Singapore Island, at the very tip of the Malay Peninsula.

Turning now to Central Asia, we find that China makes up by far the greater part of this region. China proper, as it is often called, covers about 2,900,000 square miles, and with Tibet, Manchuria, and the province of Inner Mongolia added, it has the vast area of 4,300,000 square miles. Despite this enormous size,—it is the world's second largest country—China, like some other Asian lands, is notably broken up and divided by its own natural barriers. To the south and west are the steep Himalayas and their high, cold, thinly settled plateaus; to the north in Mongolia are the bleak and windy Gobi desert and the mountains that stretch eastward into Manchuria, occupied mainly by primitive herding peoples. And thrusting out from Manchuria is the Korean peninsula, also separated by geographic barriers from its neighbours. But there are as well in eastern China wide plains and fertile river valleys that support almost continuous settlement, and here too we find many leading Chinese cities, such as Peiping, Shanghai, Nanking and Canton.

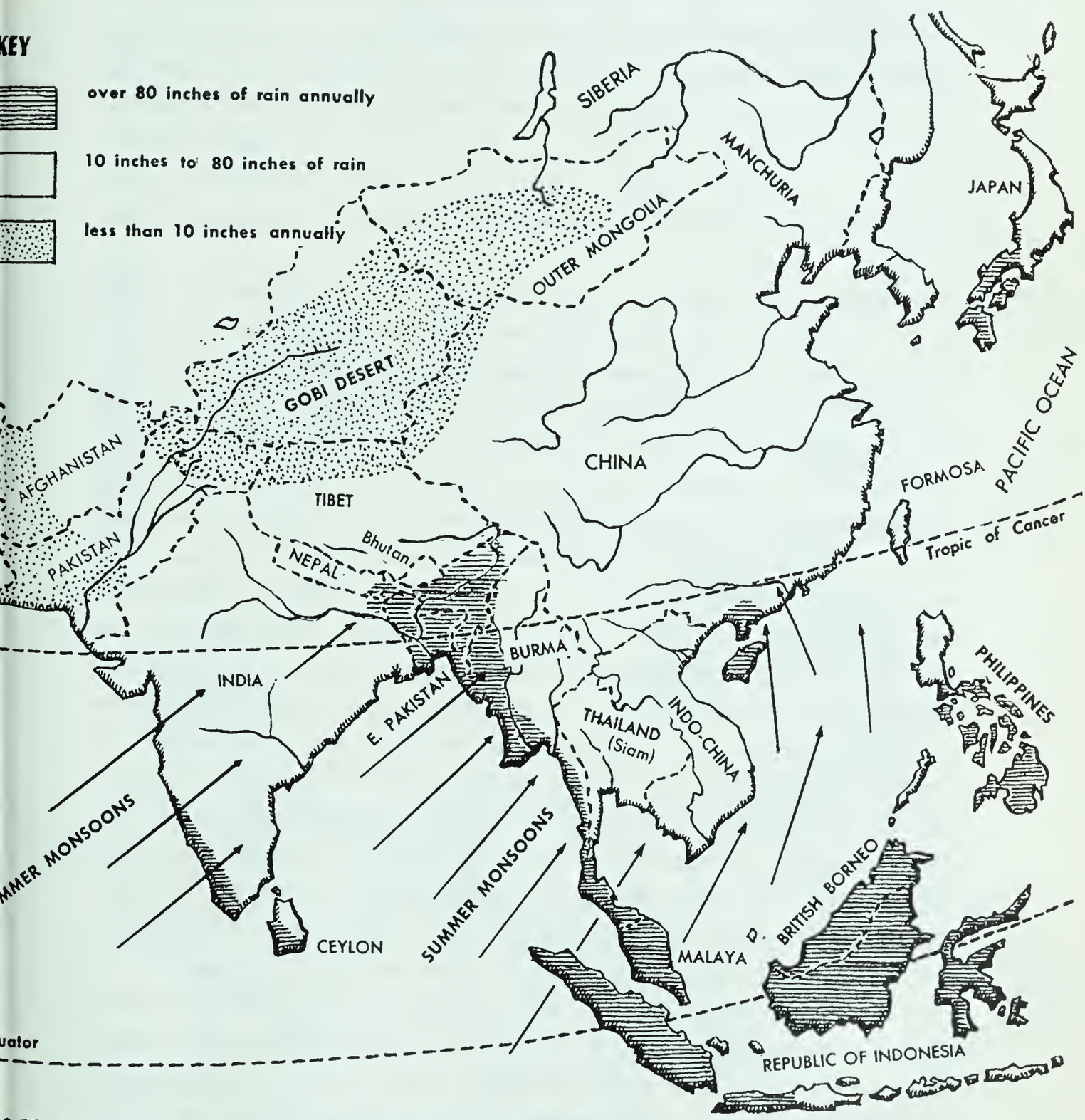
The third great natural division of Asia, the thousands of islands off its eastern side, are certainly not the least interesting part of this colourful continent. Furthest north is Japan, an island empire with no less than about 3,000 mountainous and often volcanic islands stretching north and south for about 1,300 miles. On thickly-settled Honshu, the largest of Japan's four principal islands, are Japan's capital, Tokio, and Osaka, Nagoya, and other large and modern cities. Near Tokio is the famous sacred mountain of Fujiyama, a beautiful snow-capped volcanic cone. Over a thousand miles south of Japan, lie the tropical Philippines. Two-thirds of their area is in the two large islands of Luzon and Mindanao, but altogether the Philippines contain over 7,100 islands, often thickly jungle clad. Still further south, and lying between South East Asia and Australia, are the hot and rain-drenched East Indies, sometimes called the Malay Archipelago. Stretching for about

4,000 miles from east to west, they are the world's largest group of islands, and cover an area of more than a million square miles. Some of them are large—Sumatra, Borneo, Java, Celebes, and New Guinea—but thousands more of them are quite small. From these equatorial islands, and especially from the Moluccas, often called the Spice Islands, came the spices which Europe so much prized before the discovery of America, and it was to capture this golden spice trade that the Portuguese, Dutch and English established trading posts there. Today the East Indies, now the Republic of Indonesia, contain a population of some ninety million people, most of them crowded into the one highly cultivated island of Java.

Even this quick glance at the divisions and countries of Asia give some idea of its great size, its enormous population, and its many varieties in climate, products and people. Here live over half the world's inhabitants, in all, perhaps one and a quarter billion (1,250,000,000). China has over 450,000,000 people, of whom over 420,000,000 live in China proper; Japan another 80,000,000; India about 360,000,000 and Pakistan 76,000,000. In fact, of the whole population of the Commonwealth, totalling perhaps 550,000,000, at least three-quarters are Asians. Moreover this population of Asia is rapidly increasing; India's for example, at the rate of almost 5,000,000 per year!

(b) The Life and Work of Asia. How do all these hundreds of millions live? Asia has, of course, some large cities. Tokio, with over 6,000,000 people, is one of the world's largest. In India Calcutta has over two million and Bombay more than one; in Pakistan, Karachi, which before the Second World War had perhaps a quarter of a million people, grew by 1954 to five times that number. China also, has such huge cities as Shanghai, with some 3,000,000 people, while Peking and Tientsin each have more than 1,500,000. Most notable in its own way is the British island city of Hong Kong, which was established in the nineteenth century as a naval base and centre of British trade. In 1841, when Britain obtained the rocky little island of Hong Kong, it was little more than a

pirate's nest. Within a century it had become one of the world's greatest commercial and shipping centres, a modern city of sky-scrapers and busy traffic.



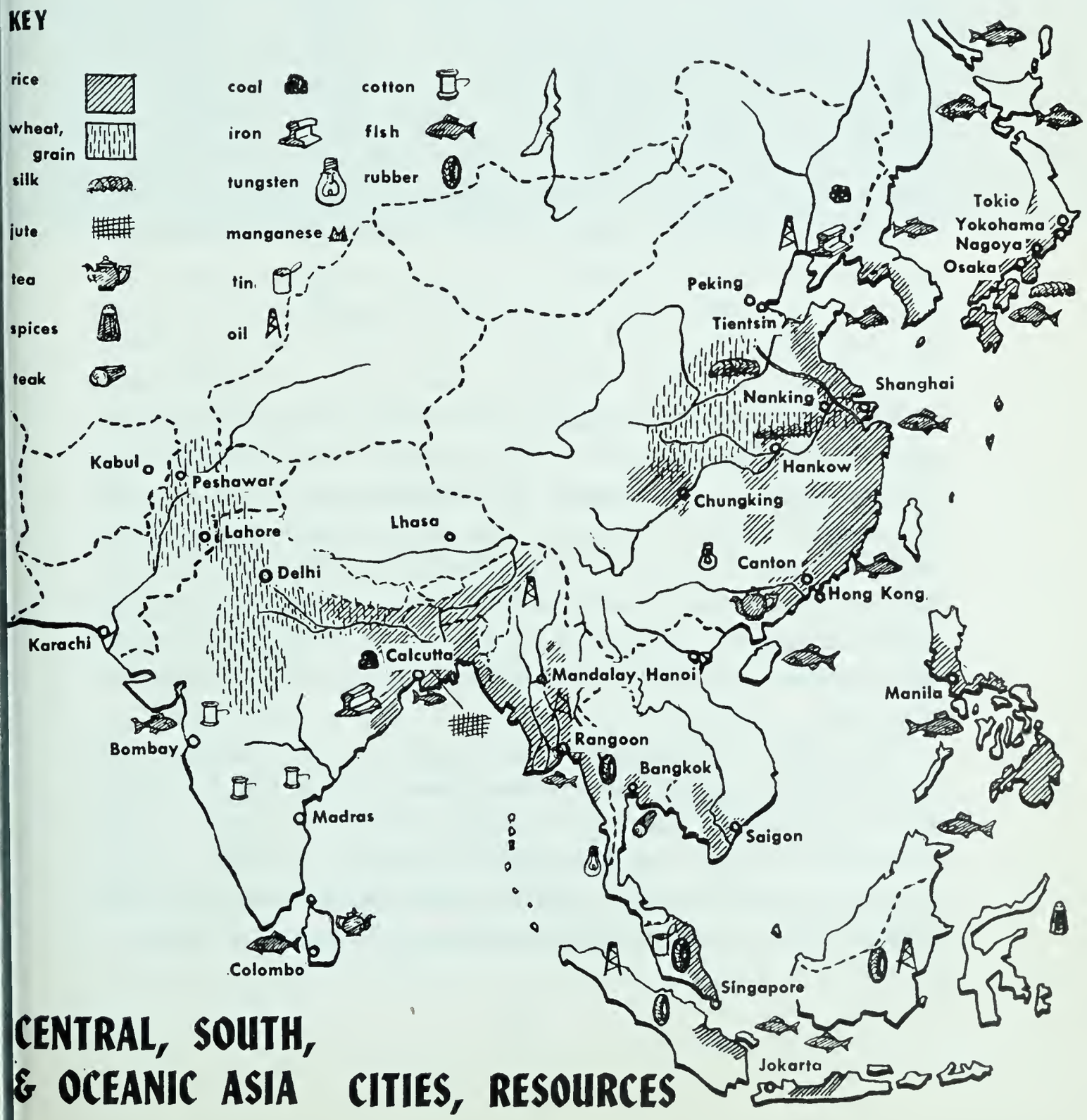
OUTH, CENTRAL & OCEANIC ASIA CLIMATE AND POLITICAL

Manufacturing is growing in Asia's cities and sprawling factories can be seen in many of them, very often quite similar to the factory structures of western cities. India, for example, has one of the largest iron and steel industries in the world, produces great quantities of textiles, and carries on other kinds of manufacturing, such as sugar refining and paper-making. China is making many industrial advances. And Japan, by far the most industrialized of any Asian nation, produces as many kinds of manufactured goods as a western country; including textiles, chemicals, ships and machinery, automobiles, electrical equipment and many other products.

In spite of this growth of modern industry, however, the cities play a small part in Asia's life; and this is one of the great differences between Asia and the west. The vast majority of Asia's people still live in villages, and still make their living from the soil, as they have done for hundreds, even thousands, of years. In Europe the cities are old. Most of them, like Venice, Hamburg, or London started as centres of trade, and in them a great merchant class developed, which finally became more important than even nobles and kings. In Asia this was not so. In Asia the villages are old, while many of the cities are new. Asian cities became important if they were great centres of government. They also had markets and merchants, but no great merchant class developed as it did in Europe. Most of the manufacturing was done in the village, as indeed it is still done today. The beautiful hand-woven Oriental rugs, the delicate work in copper, bronze or precious stones, the carvings in ivory, wood, or stone all come from village craftsmen. These arts have come down for centuries, and even in the cities as one passes along the older streets one can see such crafts being carried on in little shops in the same way as in the villages.

The vast mass of Asia's people depends on agriculture, and Asia's farming lands are by far the most crowded in the world. For millions of families the average farm is three or four acres. All the labour is done by hand, much as it has been for centuries. With such crowding there is bound to be a low standard of

living, and this is one of Asia's great problems. Asia is said to be the poorest of the world's continents. With one-half the world's population, it has only about one-twentieth of the income. It is little wonder, therefore, that as new ideas come to the masses of Asia's people, they should wish to have their lives improved and their standard of living raised. This will not be easy, but gradually much can be done. Agriculture can be improved in many places by



irrigation or drainage where they are needed, or by better care of the soil through the use of fertilizers, and improved methods of cultivation. And manufacturing, as it develops, may draw more people from the land, and provide more products for all.

One must not think that all Asia's lands are crowded, or all her villages the same. Far from it. There are, in fact, large areas which are very thinly peopled, such as the Himalayas and other mountainous regions, the jungle lands of Malaya, the Philippines and much of Indonesia, and the large semi-arid or desert areas of India, Pakistan and China. In north and west China, for example, in Mongolia and Chinese Turkestan, there are great desert and barren stretches; while in Japan, because of its steep mountainsides and rock outcroppings, only one-eighth of the land can be cultivated.

To make up for this, Asia has some of the richest agricultural lands in the world, especially in the great river valleys of China, India, and Pakistan. East China's valley of the Yangtze, which is navigable for 2,000 miles or more, is the most densely populated river valley in the world. China has also the H'wang Ho and Amur valleys, and the Grand Canal, 850 miles long, built more than twelve centuries ago, as well as countless small canals. In all such areas tightly packed little farms take up every inch of land, and there are even river dwellers who live in boats. In India and Pakistan there are the valleys of the Ganges, the Brahmaputra, the Indus, and other smaller rivers. Irrigation is also used in many places where possible. Some of it is modern, but India, like China, has had irrigation for many centuries, and often outside an Indian village one can see a camel or a pair of bullocks walking in a circle, drawing up water for the fields by the old-fashioned method from the village well.

The products of Asia, since by far the largest part of them comes from the soil, are greatly affected by climate and rainfall. In climate Asia has almost everything, from the heat of the tropics to the bitter cold of Tibet and Mongolia. In rainfall also there are the widest extremes, from the deserts of west China to the steep hillsides of Assam in northeast India, where in places there is an av-



United Kingdom Information Office

MALAYAN CULTIVATORS HARVESTING RICE

erage rainfall of more than four hundred inches a year. Here the rain seems really to fall in sheets! Over a vast area of India, Pakistan and China, however, the lives of millions depend on the great monsoon rains which come in from the Indian Ocean every year, almost as regularly as clockwork. So much is this so that these great stretches of the continent are often called 'Monsoon Asia'. The effect of the monsoons is almost magical. In much of India and Pakistan, for example, in April and May the land is scorched and baked like a desert. Then the monsoon begins to blow, enormous black clouds rolling across the sky seem to burst into torrents of water, and within a week the land is covered with green. Little wonder that for the Indian village this is the greatest event of the year. From June to October the summer monsoon blows, and in November and December there are lesser monsoon rains.

Food is by far the largest part of Asia's products, and for most of Asia's hundreds of millions of people the growing of food is the

most important thing they can do. In some places, such as Japan, fisheries are also important; but it is on the products of the soil that Asia really depends. With its many kinds of climate, Asia produces an enormous variety of agricultural products: rice, the basic food of so many millions of Asians—grown, for example, on the terraced hillsides of Japan and Siam, or along Chinese, Indian and Indonesian rivers—wheat, millet, and other grains, raised in India, Pakistan and northern China; or vegetables and fruits, such as soya beans, cabbages, peas, oranges, melons, mangoes, and many, many others. From the soil, too, comes not only the cotton on which vast numbers depend for clothing, but most of Asia's principal exports: the jute of East Pakistan, the rubber of Malaya, the tea of Ceylon and India, the palm oil and spices of Indonesia, the teak, copra, and other forest products of South East Asia. Indeed, one would have to draw up many different lists of products of the soil for different parts of this tremendously varied continent.

This does not mean that Asia has no products other than agricultural. Japan, as we have already seen, has become a great manufacturing country, though even there the majority of the people depend on agriculture for their livelihood. Asia has also great resources of coal and minerals. China is said to have the fourth largest coal deposits in the world, as well as iron, tin, lead and zinc. India also has coal, iron, and other minerals such as manganese, of which she has the world's largest known reserves. Indonesia has oil, Ceylon graphite, and Malaya tin, which is an important export for her. But much of Asia's mineral resources are as yet scarcely mapped, and so far its millions of people have made comparatively little use of them. As the continent develops modern industries, however, its minerals and other products hidden in the earth will become more and more important, and using them will be part of the mighty revolution which is changing the life of all Asia. And industry is spreading, not only in Japan, India and Pakistan, but now in China, the Philippines and Indonesia, as their governments seek hopefully to improve the standards of their peoples.

3. Asia's Contributions to the World

(a) Ancient Asian Civilizations. Near Lahore, in Pakistan, are the ruins of an ancient city buried for centuries under the sand, and only in recent years uncovered and investigated by archeologists. Scholars think it was built five, or even six thousand years ago, but no one knows who lived there, nor can anyone read the strange writing found on the pottery, and many other objects which have been dug up. Here in the basin of the Indus River, however, there must have lived a highly civilized people, for these ruins show that there were large buildings, streets and market places, workshops for metal workers and other craftsmen, drains for carrying water, and many other features of a fine city.

This is only one of Asia's many ancient ruins. Hundreds of others have been discovered in China, Burma and elsewhere, and there must be others still uncovered; for as we saw in Unit Three, Asia has been a birthplace of civilization whose history goes far back into the unknown past. In this long history of Asian civilizations, China and India have always been specially important. In all sorts of ways—religion, philosophy, architecture, and other things—they were leaders. From them influences spread far and wide through the Asian world: from China, for example, to Japan; from India to Ceylon, South East Asia, and the islands of Indonesia. And, of course, many influences came to Europe and so to the western world.

China's ancient civilization goes back for well over four thousand years. When Rome was in its beginning, China was already far advanced. The Chinese invented many things such as the magnetic needle, gunpowder, paper-making, porcelain, and printing long before Europe knew them, though some of these inventions they did not develop greatly. Ancient China, for example, did not make use of gunpowder for warfare, which was perhaps a good thing. Nor was printing carried far, but in many beautiful and practical articles the ancient civilization of China has never been surpassed.



Courtesy Smithsonian Institution, Freer Gallery of Art

TARTAR HORSEMEN
Reproduced from a Chinese painting, dated 1360 A.D.

In architecture, wood and stone carving, the making of silk and porcelain, and of embroidery and jewelry, China's artists and craftsmen have left us countless masterpieces. Sometimes these works of Chinese art may look strange to western eyes—Chinese paintings, with their delicate brushwork, for instance—but that is only because we do not understand their meaning and beauty at first sight. Yet Chinese art, no less than Chinese inventions like gunpowder, paper and printing, has left its mark on western culture, for there have been whole 'schools' of western art-design, carving, furniture-making and porcelain work influenced by Chinese models.

Many wonderful structures, too, were built in ancient China; the most remarkable being the Great Wall. Begun in the third century, B.C., to keep out the Tartars from Mongolia, it came to stretch through North China for about 1,400 miles, crossing mountains and other difficult parts of the country. But in spite of this defence China was not entirely free from invasion—as, for example, in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, when the Mongols invaded from the north. Thus when Marco Polo came from Europe in the thirteenth century it was the great Mongol emperor, Kublai Khan, who was ruling China.

Yet for long ages the Chinese believed themselves to be the world's most civilized people, and others to be barbarians. This was not entirely surprising, since their civilization was indeed so

advanced, and since also for centuries they were able to shut themselves in from the rest of the world behind their natural barriers of mountains, deserts, and seas.

India, too, was cut off by barriers of mountains and seas, and so that sub-continent could develop a characteristic civilization of its own. Its history also goes back some four or five thousand years, and today in all parts of India and Pakistan one can still see artistic triumphs of many kinds, from small carvings to enormous buildings, produced by ancient cultures through many centuries. Temples and shrines, some cut out of solid rock, were ornamented with strange and beautiful sculptures. Marble, ivory, gold, and precious stones were shaped into all kinds of lovely works of art by master craftsmen whose skill has never been equalled. Near Delhi, long capital of India, stands a great iron pillar nearly two hundred feet high. Its iron is of a purity that can scarcely be imitated today, and it has stood for centuries almost unharmed by the weather.

Ancient India had also a great literature. Its earliest religious poems go back to 1500 B.C., and later there were poems, dramas, and fables which have been translated into many languages. Famous also for centuries were the Hindu astronomers and mathematicians. In the fourth century B.C. their ideas became known to the Greeks. Centuries later, during the Middle Ages, important Hindu works were translated by Arab scholars, and through the Arabs their knowledge was spread to Europe.

Through passing ages the ideas and example of ancient India reached far and wide to other lands. especially to those of South East Asia and Indonesia. Magnificently carved temples, their architecture derived from India, can yet be found hidden in the jungles of Cambodia in Indo-China, though their worshippers have long since vanished. Today the influence of India can still be seen in the arts, religion, and daily life of all these countries—and above all in their religion. Hinduism and Buddhism are, of course, two great religions developed in India that today have followers all around the world—from the Hindu East Indians of



Trinidad or South Africa, to the Buddhist peoples of Siam, Indonesia and Tibet. In Tibet Buddhism has combined with other elements to form the religion of Lamaism. For centuries that far-off land was ruled by monks or Lamas, the greatest of these the Dalai Lama, with his capital in the city of Lhasa, deep in the Himalayas.

Hinduism in India also went hand in hand with the caste system. Originally there were four castes in which people remained throughout their lives: the Brahman, or priestly class, the warrior class, the merchant and trading class, and the labouring class. In time, however, castes became divided into hundreds or even thousands of groups, and in some cases members of different castes could have nothing to do with each other. Outside all the castes were the 'untouchables', who had no privileges and could only do work that no one else would do. Gandhi, the great Indian leader of our century, denounced these rigid caste divisions. Modern India in her search for democracy is trying to get rid of them, but such divisions, backed by Hindu religious beliefs, cannot be easily removed after so many centuries.

ASIA'S GIFTS TO THE WORLD

The Moslem religion also came to India with Mohammedan invaders from the northwest, from about 900 A.D. onward. The Mogul empire that long ruled most of the sub-continent from its capital at Delhi was a Moslem state. Large numbers of Indians accepted the Mohammedan faith, and today there are over eighty million Moslems in northern India and Pakistan. It was, in fact, this division between Moslem and Hindu which led in our own day to the separation of India and Pakistan into two countries. Furthermore, after Europeans came to India in the sixteenth century, and especially after British rule was established there in the later eighteenth century, western missionaries spread the Christian faith in many districts. Thus, as well as its great original religions of Hinduism and Buddhism, India today knows Islam and Christianity, besides the Sikh, the Parsee, and many other native faiths.

China too has produced religions with millions of followers, like Taoism and Confucianism. In fact, the greatest name in ancient China is that of the philosopher Confucius (550-478 B.C.). His doctrines became a guide for Chinese life and conduct right down to modern times, teaching men that they should be honest, upright, and faithful, should worship their ancestors, and be guided by the wisdom of the past. Confucius did not claim to found a new religion, but after his death his teachings did in fact become the basis of a powerful religious faith that still greatly affects China, even under communism. Buddhism also became strongly entrenched in China, from where it spread to Japan—although it greatly declined in its original Indian homeland, except in the neighbouring island of Ceylon. Japan has as well its own native religious faith called Shintoism. Moreover, Christianity has made some headway under devoted missionaries in both China and Japan—though Chinese communists have driven out many western missionaries in recent years. Buddhism, Hinduism and Mohammedanism are also found in South East Asia and in the islands of Indonesia. Truly Asia is rich in religious variety!

Besides the great religions, and hundreds of lesser ones, that originated in the Far East, Asia also produced Christianity, Judaism,

and Mohammedanism in the Near East. This huge continent has thus been the cradle of religions, and this above all is the outstanding contribution that Asian civilizations have made to the world.

(b) Asia's Relations with the West. On May 17, 1498, a weatherbeaten little fleet entered the port of Calicut on the west coast of India. No one who saw it could have realized that it was making one of the most important journeys in history. But such was the case, for this was Vasco da Gama on the first voyage ever to be made from Europe to the Far East. Ten months earlier he had left Lisbon, with four small vessels and after great difficulty had got around the southern point of Africa, which his men called not the Cape of Good Hope but the Cape of Storms. On the east coast of Africa he found Indian traders, and so secured a pilot who took him the rest of the way. Hence after centuries Europeans had found an open sea road to the spices and treasures of the Far East, and this was the beginning of one of the most important chapters in world history, the story of the relations of Asia and the West.

Da Gama's voyage made a great sensation in western Europe. His second voyage brought him even more wealth and fame, and soon his home-country, Portugal, was building the first European trading empire in Asia, as Portuguese merchants obtained rights to plant trading posts at points on the shores of the Indian Ocean. These empires were to grow and maintain themselves for over four hundred years, down to our own day. They had a tremendous influence on the relations of East and West. Wealth from Asia poured into Europe, and European enterprise, technical skill and military power penetrated deeper and deeper into the Far East. And so the development of both continents was vastly affected.

Through most of the sixteenth century Portugal's power and commerce continued to spread over a broad area in South Asia and the islands of Indonesia. In 1542 Spain conquered the Philippine Islands, which she held for over 350 years; but, except for this,

Portugal had things very much her own way. By the end of the century, however, other and stronger rivals were appearing. In the East Indies Portugal was challenged by the Dutch, and after some bitter fighting Portuguese power there collapsed and the Dutch gained their own long-lived East Indian empire.

It was during the seventeenth century that England and France also began to build commercial empires. Each of them formed a company to trade in India. Rivalry grew between them, and so developed a bitter struggle that lasted until the French were defeated in the Seven Years' War. In this war, Clive's sweeping victory over the Indian allies of the French at Plassey, in 1757, was as important for Britain as Wolfe's was on the other side of the world at Quebec two years later. For as a result, the British East Indian Company now began to take control of more and more Indian territory, since the sub-continent had fallen into disorder and the weak rule of warring princes and chieftains.

For a hundred years thereafter the British East India Company was the great power in India. During that time it extended its rule over most of the sub-continent and into Ceylon and Burma, while in Malaya the British founded the great port of Singapore in 1819. In 1857, however, just a century after the battle of Plassey, came the violent Indian Mutiny, which spread rapidly through the north of India. Great numbers of Indians remained loyal and



EARLY EUROPEAN CONTACTS WITH SOUTH & OCEANIC ASIA

the rising was soon put down, but it was clear that the Company's rule must come to an end. So India was brought directly under the British government where it remained as the 'brightest jewel of the imperial crown', ruled by a Viceroy sent out from Britain.

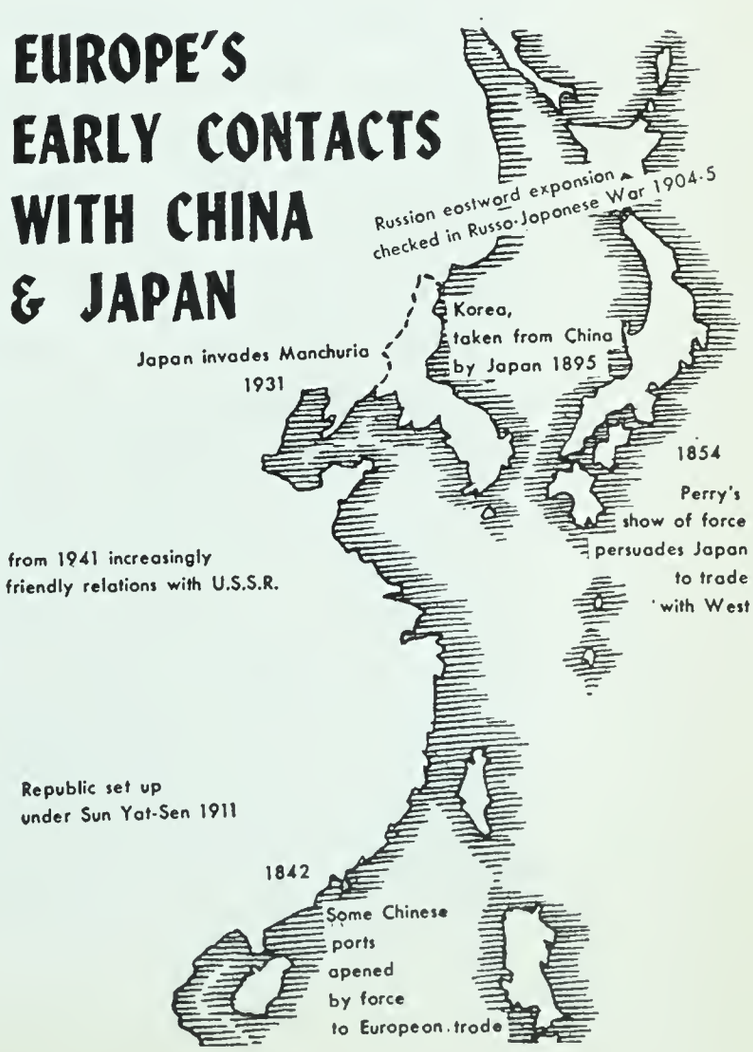
Britain was thus the greatest European power in Asia, but the Dutch held the rich East Indies, while Portugal and France still kept trading posts around the Indian Ocean. In the later nineteenth century, moreover, when western nations were racing to gain 'backward countries', France won control of Indo-China, leaving only Siam still under native rule in all of southern Asia. Furthermore, a new western power appeared on the Asian scene in 1898, when the United States defeated the crumbling empire of Spain and took over the Philippines, as well as certain Pacific islands.

China and Japan, however, did not become part of a western empire, and for a long time managed to shut themselves off from the outside world, not wishing to trade or have any connections with western 'barbarians'. The British East India Company did manage to carry on a little trade with China, but when that ancient realm finally opened its gates it was because of a war with Britain in 1840-2 called the Opium War. This was not to Britain's credit since it was largely fought to overcome China's laws forbidding the opium traffic—though the high-handedness of Chinese officials also helped to invite trouble. At any rate, by a treaty at the end of the war, China was forced to open five of her ports to western traders, who were given special rights in them; these became known as the 'treaty ports'. Later there came to be sixty-nine treaty ports, as European nations wrested these concessions from the declining Chinese empire.

Shanghai, a great international commercial city, and Hong Kong, which the British built up from a little village, were perhaps the most outstanding of these western centres in China. Soon French, Germans, Russians and others were all eager to stake out claims as well. In the treaty ports foreigners could not only trade and own property, but had the right to be tried by their own laws and to maintain their own police forces. This they claimed

as necessary because Chinese law and order was collapsing into corruption and banditry, with the decay of the old empire. But it is easy to see why the Chinese would resent these 'extra-territorial rights', which gave the foreigner special privileges in their country just because he had power to demand them. How would you feel about such a thing in Canada? At all events, extra-territorial rights were only done away with in China in 1943. And without doubt the resentment they built up is one reason communism made rapid headway there after the Second World War, as many Chinese were tempted to turn their backs on the West that had once lorded it over them.

Japan's story of contact with the West begins in much the same way, but soon runs a different course. The country was unlocked soon after China when, in 1853, a United States fleet under Admiral Perry was sent to Japan to bring her to open her ports to trade. In the next year, thanks to this show of force, a treaty was signed by which she agreed to do so. This was the beginning of the most striking change in any Asian nation during the nineteenth century, for, unlike China, Japan decided that the way to meet the West was not to look down on its ways, but to learn and copy the secrets of its strength. And so in 1868 the government of Japan decided that it would bring in western ideas of all kinds. Students were sent to all the leading western countries to study their government, science, manufacturing, armies and navies, and soon they were coming back with all kinds of new knowledge. Within thirty years Japan was changed in a way that was a surprise to the entire world.



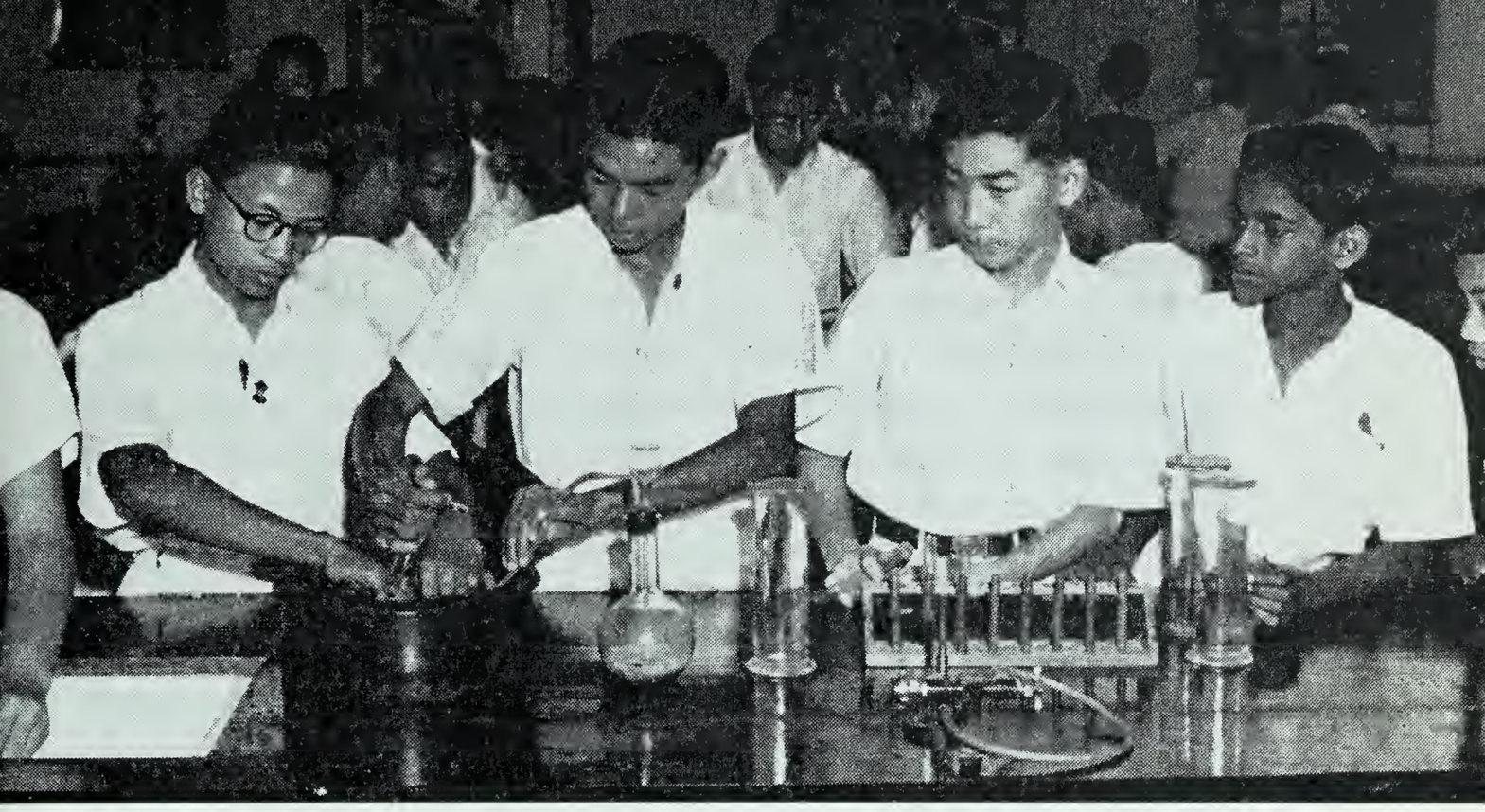
She had become a military and naval power, a great manufacturer,

and an important trading country with ships on every ocean. When she defeated China in a war in 1894-5, gaining Korea, people were not greatly surprised, for China had done nothing to change her old methods. But when ten years later Russia was thoroughly beaten in the Russo-Japanese war it was realized that a new Great Power had risen in the Pacific. Japan now obtained more territory, at Russia's expense. When in the First World War she took part in defeating Germany in the Pacific, she was able to add a number of Pacific islands to her empire, and built up naval bases there for her rising sea-power, like the islands of Yap and Truk in the Carolines.

Japan's all-powerful military leaders were still more ambitious, however. In 1931, Japan invaded Manchuria, and in 1937 she began a war on China in what was really an attempt to take control of that huge country. Then during the Second World War she joined Germany and Italy, and it was her surprise attack on the American fleet at Pearl Harbor in Hawaii in 1941 that brought the United States into the war. For a time Japan had great success. She conquered the Philippine Islands from the Americans, Indo-China from the French, Burma and Malaya from the British, and Indonesia from the Dutch. She also took many Pacific islands and even threatened Australia and Alaska.

Then the tide turned. Gradually Japan's armies and navy were turned back, in Burma, the South Pacific and elsewhere, and with the dropping of two atomic bombs by United States aircraft on her homeland, in August, 1945, she was knocked out of the war. On her defeat, Japan's war lords were overthrown and a new attempt was begun to create a peaceful, parliamentary system of government. She had lost all her overseas empire and suffered great damage. Yet we can be sure that Japan will always play an important part in the Far East, for she has a clever and hardworking people with great technical ability, and she has shown that she can combine western and Asian ideas in a remarkable way.

In all this story of contact between East and West, however, it would be wrong to think that the only results have been war and conquest, and generally the subjection of Asia to western power. No, there have been benefits flowing both ways, even though sus-



United Kingdom Information Office

NEW EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES ARE COMING TO ASIA

picion of the 'imperialist' West has been left in many Asian lands. For one thing, a great and valuable trade grew up between Asia and the West which the world could ill afford to lose. Eastern goods were exchanged for cheap western cloth, hardware, machinery, and all the products of an industrial civilization that were lacking in Asia. And certainly the West came to rely on Asian goods—the tea and jute of the Indian sub-continent, the silk of China and Japan, the rubber and tin of Malaya, the spices of Indonesia. On the other hand, with western machine methods, it was possible for the first time to raise the standard of living of vast masses of Asian people—to clothe, house and feed them better.

This enormous task has hardly been touched as yet, but during the time of European empires in Asia important beginnings were made. For example, railways, roads and generally improved communications were established in large parts of the Far East, to break down the local isolation that had often permitted famine in one area while not too far away were abundant harvests. Large dam and irrigation schemes were undertaken, in particular by the British in India. Cities and factories arose. Schools and universities were opened, and a new educated class emerged. And the application of European medical science, the building of hospitals (often by Christian churches) and the labours of medical missionaries, be-

gan at last to reduce Asia's appalling death rate. Certainly, when Asian peoples at last sought to end European control and to build nations of their own, it was in large part because western contributions had so improved their countries that they were now able to think of standing on their own feet in the modern world.

Hence great contributions have flowed each way from the contacts of East and West: western science, industrial skill and methods of self-government to the East; eastern feeling for religion, the arts, and above all, respect for learning to the West. In fact, the deep-rooted Asian admiration for knowledge and culture, instead of mere wealth and worldly success, is one of the best contributions the East can make to the modern western world.

4. Asia in the Present Age

(a) The Rise of Asian Nations. As we have just noted, the contacts between East and West brought great changes in Asia and led finally to the emergence of new nations from European empires in the East. Western contributions in education, in communications that tied countries together, and in improved living standards, all did much to rouse Asian peoples to a new awareness of themselves. But in particular, the West also contributed its own ideas and spirit of nationalism to Asia, where, indeed, it grew by being nourished on feelings of opposition to the foreign western rulers.

The Second World War especially brought an upsurge of Asian nationalism. In the first place, the fact that an Asian nation, Japan, conquered so many European and American possessions showed that western masters were not all-powerful; besides, the spirit of nationalism, roused in so many Asians at this time, was increased when they turned against the Japanese, who they found were not liberators but considerably harsher imperialists and oppressors. In the second place, European countries were often so hard hit by the war that they did not have the power to renew a strong grip on the East after the Japanese had been driven back; in any case they were largely concerned with problems closer home. And in the third

place, after their own grim struggle to avoid German and Japanese conquest, there was a new consciousness in western lands that peoples everywhere should have the right to develop in their own way, and in freedom. There was even a willingness to put problems of 'backward countries' under United Nations supervision, in the hope that in time these lands would rise to equal rank with other nations in that world organization.

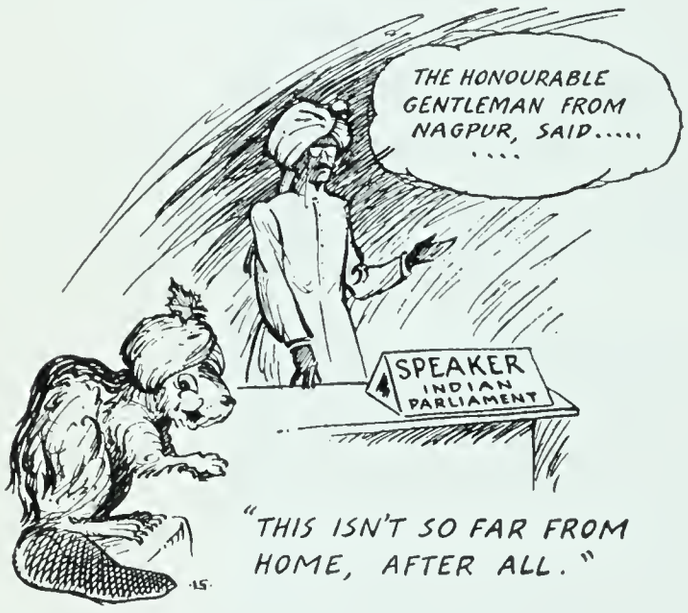
There were signs of Asian nationalism well before the great transformation brought by the Second World War, notably in those countries that had been 'westernized' most fully: in Japan, of course, which had already copied the ways of the West to become a powerful and expanding nation; and also in India, where British rule had given the Indian people a unity, a self-consciousness, and a degree of education and self-government that they had never known before. And so the rise of the great sub-continent of India to nationhood, out of the British Empire, is one of the most unusual stories of national advance anywhere in Asia, or indeed in the whole world.

More than that, it was achieved not through bloody war and revolution but through agreement. After India finally gained her independence, in 1947, Britain, in fact, had more friends there than ever before, and the new Dominions of Pakistan and Ceylon and the Republic of India all remained within the Commonwealth. One reason for this was that Britain proved willing to meet their demands for nationhood, and showed that her earlier claim that she was training their peoples by stages for self-government, had not been false. Thus Indians saw the value of staying in a world-wide family of nations that believed in self-government, and did not cut themselves off in anger from the great Commonwealth partnership. And a second big reason was that the Indian peoples increasingly came to appreciate what British rule had done to unite them and prepare them to govern themselves.

An important step in this direction was the introduction over a century ago of education in English, so that today educated people all over the teeming sub-continent can speak together and under-

stand each other in that language. We can see how significant this is when we observe that the Republic of India has more than two hundred native languages, and although Hindu, now the official language, is the most widespread of these, English is still more widely understood. It is interesting, for example, in the parliament at Delhi to hear the debates being carried on in English because this is the language best known to all the members.

Another great result of British rule in India was the idea of honest and efficient government. For a long time Britain sent out men to hold all kinds of government positions, and this Indian Civil Service was one of the finest in the world. As time went on, more and more Indians were given positions in the I.C.S., so that when independence came there were trained people to carry on the various departments of government. India's ideas of parliament and democracy also came from Britain. In the later years of British rule there were provincial and national parliaments, and it was in them that Indian leaders received their training. Hence the British parliamentary system is now the basis of India's government. It would be hard to overestimate the importance of these facts today in the relations of Asia and the West.



"THIS ISN'T SO FAR FROM HOME, AFTER ALL."

Towards the end of the nineteenth century, Indian leaders began to demand more self-government from Britain, and a difficult period began which did not end until India and Pakistan finally received their independence after the Second World War. During this long period most people in Britain came to think that India should gradually get self-government, but there was much difference of opinion as to how fast the granting of self-government step by step should go. Indian leaders became more and more

impatient, however, especially after the First World War when nationalism was rising rapidly all across the world.

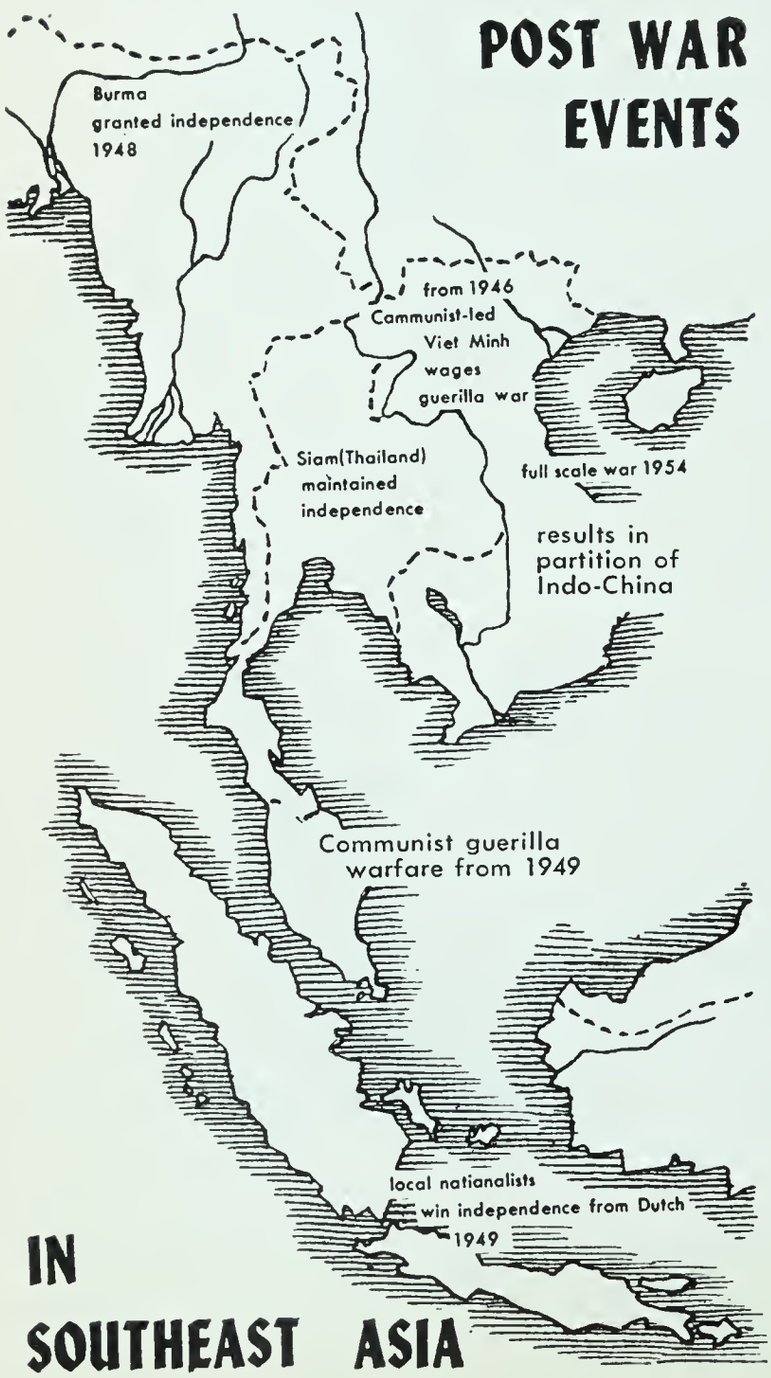
In this period India produced a very great national leader, Mohandas Gandhi, whose name became known everywhere. Gandhi had been trained in law in London. He had a profound admiration for western ideas, and was in favour of adopting those which could be used. Yet he was first and foremost an Indian, and understood India's millions as no one else did. Though a Hindu, he was against the caste system, and championed the cause of the 'untouchables'. Above all, he was against war and violence and believed India could win its independence by peaceful opposition to British rule.

Gandhi's successful revolution was one of the strangest in all history, but through it he won the admiration of his opponents and the love of tens of millions of followers. His love of peace and hatred of violence was one of the reasons why India's independence finally came not through war but through friendly agreement. Nor was it surprising that Gandhi's loyal and able follower, Pandit Nehru, who had worked so long in India's cause, succeeded him as the chief leader of an independent Indian people. Nehru, like Gandhi, was educated in the West but devoted to the East. As Prime Minister of the young Indian republic he strove to follow a middle course, whereby his country could obtain the benefits of western skills and arts of government in building the new Indian nation, but would still be grounded on India's own ancient civilization.

In the end, the chief difficulty in bringing about Indian independence was not with Britain but within India itself. Here the old religious division between Hindus (about three hundred and fifty million) and Moslems (some eighty million) prevented an agreement on the adoption of a new constitution. For a number of years this quarrel grew more and more bitter, as Moslems feared rule by the Hindu majority. Finally, Moslem leaders, like Mohammed Ali Jinnah, demanded that the country should be divided, so that the Moslems could have a state of their own. Thus it was

that when independence came in 1947, two countries, India and Pakistan were created—Pakistan in two parts, in the northwest and northeast, where the great majority were Moslem.

This division was very hard to draw and caused terrible suffering. Millions of refugees moved in panic from one country into the other as religious riots and fanatical violence broke out. Many lost all, even their lives. Yet there are still millions of Moslems left in India, and many Hindus in Pakistan. Nevertheless, despite these and other problems—such as the dispute as to whether Kashmir in the north should go to India or Pakistan—Indian independence was a great step forward. With it, western rule had ended, and a new period of nationhood had begun. This story of India through three and a half centuries is thus one of the brightest chapters in the history of Asia's relations with the West, since in many ways it has ended with free nations established in Asia which yet have many ties with western lands and respect their ideas and ideals.



In South East Asia, a less advanced region, nationalism developed later than in India, and when it burst forth quite suddenly after the Second World War its course was far more violent. Burma, it is true, obtained nationhood peaceably from Britain following the war, though it chose to leave the Commonwealth – largely because the Burmese were a different people with different problems from the Indians, and they had resented the fact that under British rule Indians had gained places

of power over them in government and business. In French Indo-China and Indonesia, however, the rise of nationalism was marked by war and bitter struggle.

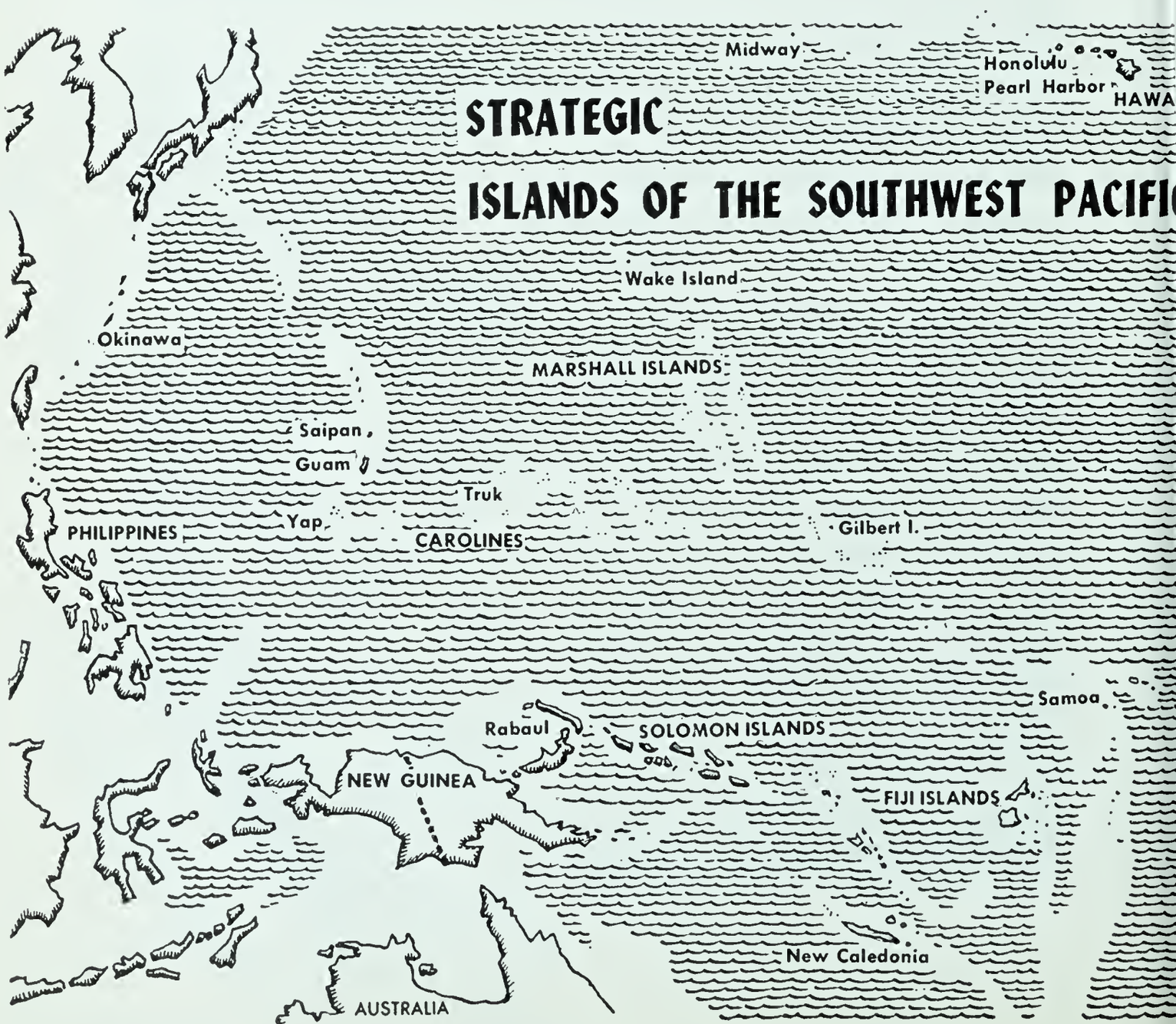
In Indo-China the French did not show the same willingness as the British to come to terms with the new Asian national spirit after the Second World War, though they did make some concessions. Here, moreover, communism grew rapidly, building on the desperate poverty, the illiteracy, and the nationalist longings of the people. Communists were able to convince many Indo-Chinese that they stood for national freedom and the overthrow of foreign rule, hiding the fact that communism also meant the end, not the beginning of real liberty for the people.

A powerful, well-led communist 'Viet Minh' movement appeared in Indo-China. For years it carried on skilful guerilla warfare, which tied down many French troops, and was a costly drain on France, and finally in 1954 it burst forth into full-scale, open attacks. The French did have the non-communist Viet Nam nationalist movement on their side, but their failure to grant soon enough to Viet Nam the full national independence it desired weakened the French position in Indo-China. As a result, France had to cede the northern parts to a communist Viet Minh state.

Meanwhile, communism was active in Malaya as well. Here the British were moving towards self-government for the Malayan people at a rate that was generally satisfactory to the Malays themselves. But there was a very large Chinese element in the population, and communism found a good deal of support among it. Thus, following several years of peace after the Second World War, communist bandits began a widespread terror campaign, attacking the homes of European plantation managers, slashing and destroying rubber trees, and doing their utmost to disrupt British rule in Malaya. Strong military measures, fully backed by the Malayans, began to check these guerilla attacks; but here too communism had imposed a costly burden on the ruling power, and the Malayan situation was a difficult one indeed.

In the islands of Indonesia, although communism was in evidence there as well, the struggle that emerged was mainly between the old Dutch empire and new Indonesian nationalism. Finally, after considerable fighting, the Dutch agreed to withdraw and in 1949 an Indonesian republic was set up, composed of the main islands of Java and Sumatra and a host of others, large and small. A sort of 'Commonwealth tie' continued to exist between the Netherlands and Indonesia. And it is interesting to note that the United Nations played a part in bringing to a close the struggle in these beautiful but troubled East Indies.

Another island empire, the Philippines, also won independence following the Second World War. The United States granted this



in orderly fashion, and there was little difficulty, although a communist movement in the interior jungles also cost the Philippine government years of fighting against guerillas. The United States, however, continued to hold naval and air bases here, as well as in many island chains across the Pacific, from Samoa in the south to Okinawa off Japan. In fact, after the Second World War the United States was the main Allied power, with troops occupying defeated Japan. The final authority over that country was the American commander, General Douglas MacArthur. His administration busied itself with trying to establish new democratic forms of government in that country, and finally in 1952 a peace treaty was signed with Japan. But a strong alliance now bound Japan with the United States, while large American forces continued to stay in the island kingdom, as well as in neighbouring Korea, once the latter came under communist attack in 1950.

Meanwhile China had gone through tremendous changes of its own. There had been signs of a national re-awakening in that age-old land as early as 1900, when a series of riots and risings called the Boxer rebellion tried to drive foreigners out of China. Then in 1911 a revolution overthrew the now hopelessly weak and corrupt empire. A republic was set up with the great national leader, Dr. Sun Yat-Sen, as president. China seemed well started on the road to self-government and democracy.

Unfortunately, however, the country had many deep divisions, and faced grave difficulties, especially after the death of Sun Yat-Sen in 1925. His nationalist party, the Kuomintang, now led by General Chiang Kai-Shek, was unable to control this enormous nation. War lords with their own armies seized power in different places. Moreover, a communist party had sprung up, its leaders trained in Moscow, and this made the deepest division of all. When Japan invaded China in 1937, different Chinese groups and leaders came together under General Chiang Kai-Shek to resist the attack, and through the Second World War China fought with the Allies to defeat Japan. But relations between the communist and nationalist groups were never close.



— EMPRESS TZU HSI

LAST OF IMPERIAL CHINESE DYNASTY
CORRUPTION & INEFFICIENCY OF HER GOVERNMENT ENCOURAGED FOREIGN INTERVENTION



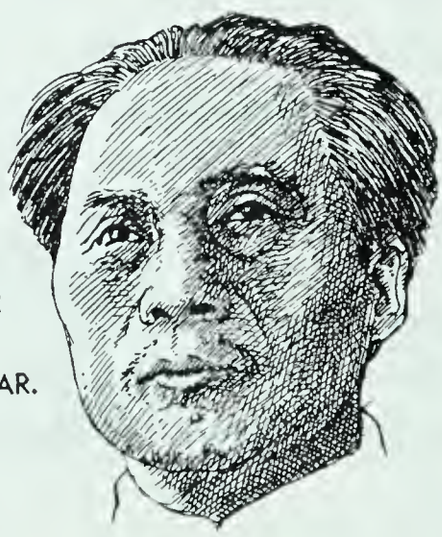
SUN YAT-SEN —

FOUNDER OF THE CHINESE REPUBLIC
BEGAN WESTERNIZATION OF CHINA



— CHIANG KAI-SHEK

HEADED KUOMINTANG DURING JAPANESE INVASION
HEADS CHINESE NATIONALIST MOVEMENT IN FORMOSA TODAY



MAO TSE-TUNG —

CHIANG'S FAILURE TO SOLVE POST-WAR PROBLEMS IN CHINA RESULTED IN CIVIL WAR.
MAO EMERGED AS LEADER OF THE NEW COMMUNIST GOVERNMENT OF CHINA

GALLERY OF CHINESE LEADERS

After the war the division between communists and nationalists became more and more bitter. General Chiang's Kuomintang party soon showed that it could not solve the problems left by the war. Confusion and corruption spread, while the communists promised reforms; especially the removal of the landlords and the return of the land to the oppressed peasantry. And wherever the communist forces gained power, they crushed out all opposition in the most ruthless way, and thus they steadily advanced. At length, war broke out between communists and nationalists. In this conflict, 1947 and 1948 were the great years of decision. At the end of that time General Chiang's defeated armies had to withdraw to the island of Formosa, leaving the communists under Mao Tse-Tung in control of the whole of mainland China.

With the victory of the communists, China turned toward Russia and sharply away from the West, at least for the time being. Asia was thus divided within itself; for in these same years, as we have seen, neither India nor other newly independent countries nor Japan followed the same path. And this critical division, and the

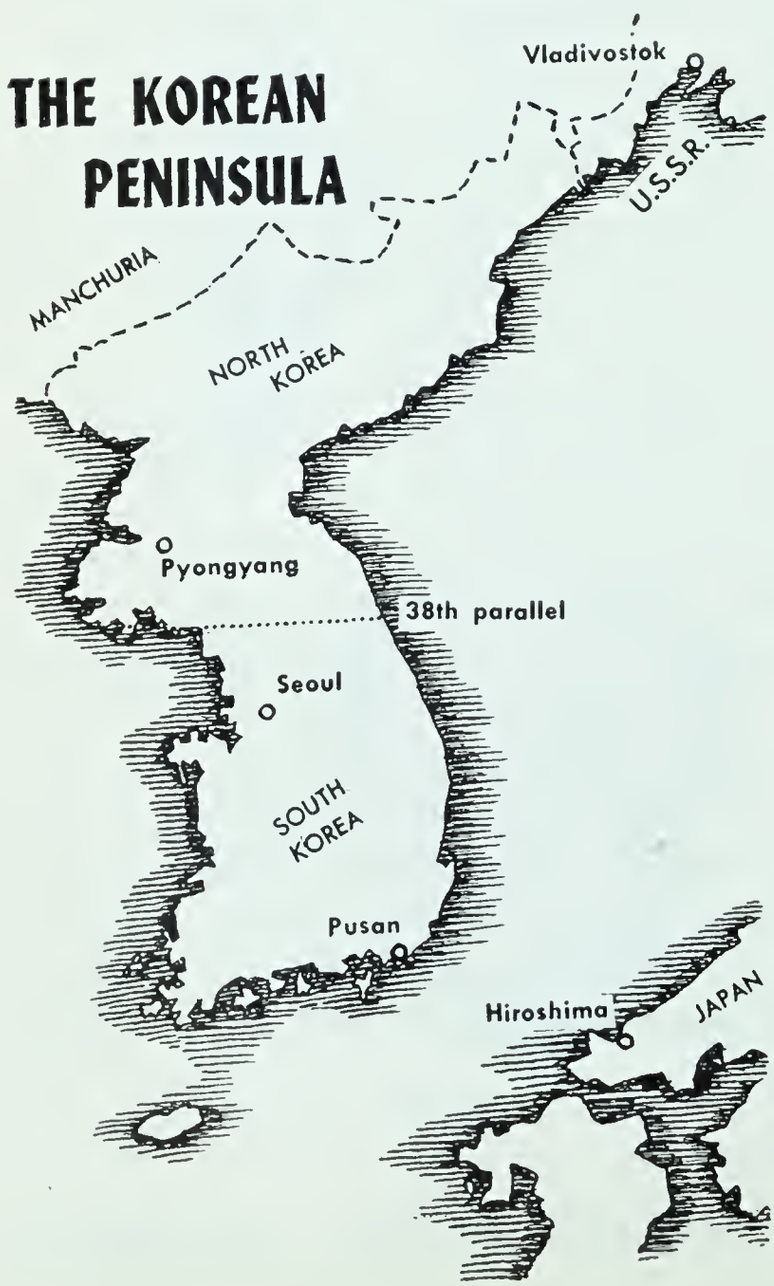
events leading up to it, have affected the whole world. Hence, in all the history of Asia's relations with the West since Vasco da Gama made his famous voyage, no years have been more important than those during and following the Second World War, when new nations rose and old nations were transformed across the whole face of the East.

(b) The Problems of Asia Today. In June, 1950, the world heard with alarm that forces from the communist state of North Korea had launched a sudden attack on the republic of South Korea. After what you have just read of wars and troubles in Asia you may well ask why this was so different or so much more dangerous than the other conflicts going on. But the reason was that this showed possibilities of leading to a third World War. The other struggles, like that in Indo-China, were so far local conflicts, not directly linked to the rivalries of the Great Powers in the world. Even the great conflict in China had been primarily an internal affair, however much the Great Powers had desired to see either communists or nationalists win. But the Korean War was an attack of one country on another, and it recalled the series of German, Japanese and Italian aggressions that led to the Second World War. Therefore the United Nations moved to check the aggression, and many member countries, Canada among them, sent troops to Korea, to carry out this 'police action', as it was called. It goes without saying that Russia and other communist member countries did not do so, and condemned the whole action of the United Nations.

The background in Korea was an involved one. On Japan's defeat in 1945, the Koreans, who had kept alive their own spirit as a people even after centuries of Chinese and Japanese rule, were enabled to gain their independence. Russian and communist influence, however, had reached down from Siberia into China and Manchuria, and it moved on into the northern part of Korea, where a strong communist movement was organized. On the other hand American forces in southern Korea supported a democratic government. As a result the Korean peninsula had to be divided into two states, communist North Korea, and South Korea under President

Syngman Rhee (long a nationalist leader) with a democratic form of government. The United Nations supervised the uneasy boundary of the 39th parallel, but just when agreement seemed to have been reached and American troops were being withdrawn, the communists struck to conquer all Korea.

There followed a bitter war as American troops, for the greater part, and other United Nations forces joined with the South Korean armies to turn back the North Korean attack. But now communist China, fearful that its North Korean allies would be forced back right to the Chinese border of Manchuria, brought its great manpower into the fight. Finally in 1953, after a bloody see-saw battle, a long disputed armistice ended the war, leaving the dividing line in Korea much where it had been, while opposed forces still watched suspiciously from either side.



This Korean struggle, therefore, showed how deep the division was between communist and non-communist Asia and the latter's western allies. Nor was the danger over in Korea. Furthermore, the war there did much to convince the United States and other western countries that communist China should not be admitted to the United Nations, as the Chinese and Russian communists strongly desired, even though this still left China's seat in the world body to the nationalist Chinese under Chiang Kai-Shek—who actually represented only the island of Formosa, not the vast Chinese mainland.

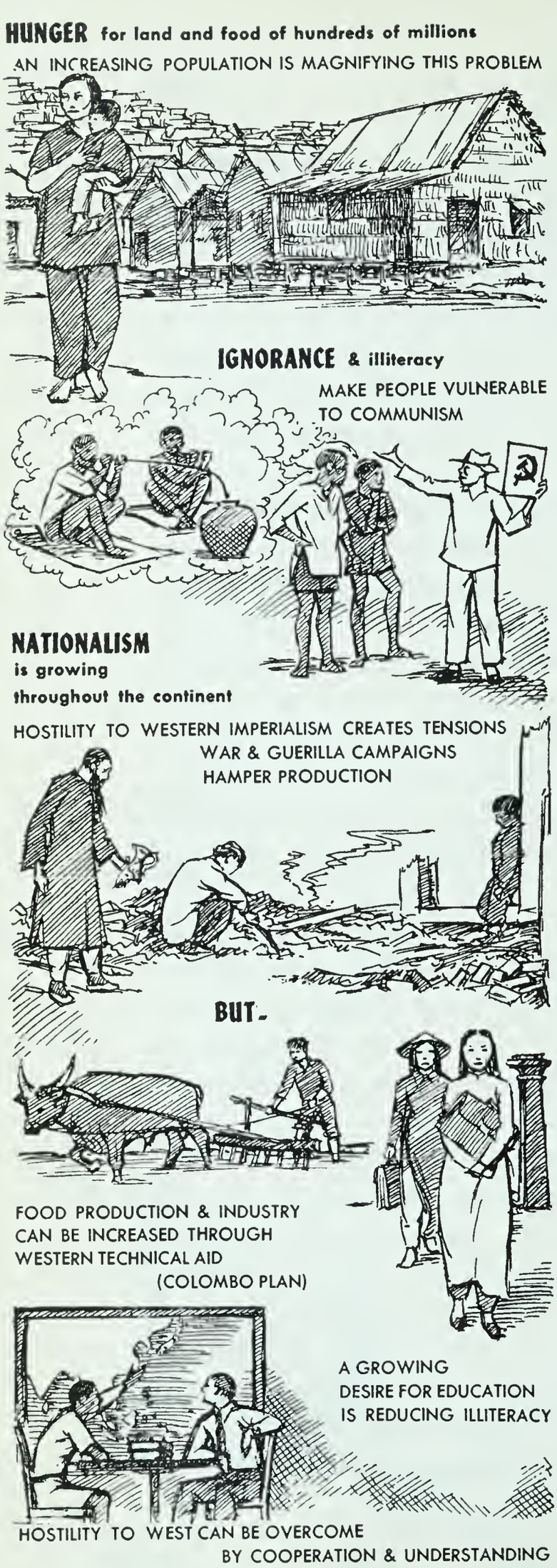
Thus the case of Korea makes very plain the great problem of

communism in Asia. We have already seen how large it looms in South East Asia, especially in Indo-China, and there is a sizeable communist movement in India as well. For the present it is held in check there. India under Nehru has had notable success in making democratic government work in a huge nation where the great majority cannot read or write. Yet should the Indian government be unable to meet the country's weighty problems of illiteracy, poverty, and scarcity, then communism may spread here too, thriving on misery as it does so often.

The problems of illiteracy and poverty—indeed, of malnutrition and actual starvation—are common to most Far Eastern nations. Land is terribly overcrowded in many areas and far too divided up to serve as good farm units. The farming people are often oppressed by wealthy landlords and heavy taxes. At the same time there are broad areas of waste land calling for development, and there is great need for capital to be invested to build more railways and roads, dams, power plants and factories. And always there is the low standard of living, so that people cannot afford to buy more goods, and the steadily rising population, that means more and more mouths to feed.

How can these grim problems be met? We should neither be too hopeful nor too despairing, for there is no simple solution; and yet little by little they can be, and are being met. New farming methods, irrigation and drainage schemes, and the redistribution of farm lands are being undertaken from Pakistan to Indonesia. Schools, dams and factories are going up. India in particular has made remarkable progress in educating its people, and has done much at least to check the decline of living standards. Aid for development has come both through the United Nations and the Colombo Plan, that seeks to raise standards in India, Pakistan, Ceylon, and South East Asia. Technical training and expert aid have also come from many western countries, Canada among them.

One great source of aid lies in the goodwill, understanding and co-operation of the more advanced western lands. Another, perhaps even greater, lies in the new spirit and determination of



aroused eastern nations. For in the long run, self-help is the best help, and a most encouraging sign is the fact that so many Asians are no longer willing to put up with their backward state in the world. In this respect the force of nationalism can work very much to the good in this part of the world.

Another bright feature is the success that modern medical science is having in conquering disease in Asia. Still another is the awakening desire of Asians for education. And here we should remember that illiteracy does not mean stupidity. For centuries reading and learning in Asia were left to the few, to the scholars and philosophers. But now in changing times Asians have shown themselves the equal of people anywhere in their ability to learn and to apply their knowledge.

Furthermore, there is much to be hoped from the spread of democratic government. It used to be said that Asians could not govern themselves. And yet India successfully held the largest democratic election the world has ever seen in 1952—with one hundred and seventy-six million electors and 17,000 candidates! The Indian voters took their task very serious-

ly and the whole election went off smoothly. And if this huge experiment proves a success in India—the greatest power in South Asia—then the idea and ideals of democratic self-government will be vastly strengthened throughout the East.

The mighty state of China has gone another way, and no one can yet say for sure how much real reform the communists have carried out, despite their many claims. As for Japan, the third great Asian power, we cannot tell how firmly democracy has taken root there. Still we can be hopeful, because of Japan's new ties with the West, and undoubtedly the country has made an amazing recovery from its war losses.

In China's case, moreover, it well may be that in time she will break away from close entanglements with the Soviet Union and follow her own kind of national communism, like Yugoslavia, which would not prevent her establishing better relations with the West. There is certainly evidence that China's rulers are not simply accepting Russian direction of their policies. Here nationalism may act against Soviet imperialism, as it has acted against old western empires in so many other Asian lands.

Nationalism, in fact, may still be the real key to Asia. Today strong national feelings in Asia—like those in American or European countries in earlier times—make eastern peoples demand freedom to govern themselves and not be ruled by outsiders, even though that outside rule may have many good features. Asian nationalism has naturally turned against the old western empires and their white rulers, and so is expressed in the popular cry, 'Asia for the Asians'. Communists, of course, have tried to take advantage of this feeling; but there are plenty of signs that hostility to the West need only be a passing stage in the rise of Asian nationalism. For instance, Britain demonstrated this fact when she gave India, Pakistan and Ceylon their independence and helped their new governments get under way, thereby winning their friendship and stilling their suspicions.

Yet Asian suspicions are still there, and it is very important that we of the West understand them. Communists take advantage of

these feelings to charge that the nations of the West, lead by the United States, are still following policies of an imperialistic kind in the Far East. But a young nation like Canada, that has not the power of the great American republic, is far less likely to upset sensitive feeling in Asia, and her help is greatly appreciated there. We must offer Asia our co-operation rather than our leadership.

There are many 'ifs'—but if Asian nations have the time and patience to deal with their great problems, if we in Canada and the West in general strive to understand their outlook and their difficulties, and if we make available to them our best help in technical skill, arts of government, and expert knowledge—then the whole world can benefit. For there will be no reason to think that Asian nationalism will go on in the direction of communism and war, and so stability and contentment can grow in these age-old lands across the wide Pacific—which will serve the cause of peace everywhere.

Facts to Know

1. Why did Prime Minister St. Laurent make his friendship tour of 1954? (1, a)
2. What are the main reasons for Canada's growing interest in Asia? (1, b)
3. Describe the life of the village people of Asia. (2, b)
4. On a map of Asia mark on the following rivers which flow through rich agricultural land: Yangtze, Hwang Ho, Amur, Ganges, Brahmaputra, and Indus. (2, b)
5. Where do the monsoon winds blow and in what way do they affect Asia? (2, b)
6. (a) From what countries do the following export products come? Jute, rubber, tea, palm oil, spices.
   (b) In what countries are the following minerals found? Coal, manganese, oil, graphite, and tin. (2, b)
7. On a map show the main distribution of religions in Asia. (3, a)
8. Indicate the date and way in which the following countries gained a foothold in Asia: Portugal, Holland, Britain, France, and the United States. (3, b)
9. "Japan adopted many Western customs." Outline the effect this had on Japan's later history. (3, b)
10. In what ways have European nations assisted in the development of Asia? (3, b)
11. What factors tended to bring about a feeling of nationalism in Asia? (3, b)
12. (a) Outline briefly Gandhi's contribution to Indian independence.
    (b) Why was Pakistan established as a separate country? (4, a)
13. Indicate the way in which the following countries gained their independence: India, Pakistan, Ceylon, Malaya, Burma, the Philippines, Indonesia, and Korea. (4, a)
14. Describe the way in which the communists gained control in China. (4, a)
15. What affect did United Nations' intervention in Korea have? (4, a)

Learn by Doing

1. Have the class trace on the globe Prime Minister St. Laurent's world tour of 1954. (1, a)
2. Find out where people of Asian ancestry are chiefly located in Canada, and what some of their main occupations are. (1, b)
3. Have a committee look up information on the origin of the song, *On The Road To Mandalay.*
4. Have committees prepare maps on the blackboard and explain the surface features of each of the following districts: (a) South Asia; (b) Central Asia; (c) the islands along the east coast. (2, a)
5. Have pupils list articles found around the home which were made in Japan. (2, b)
6. Compare a population map of Asia with one showing surface features, to discover the reason for the population spread. (2, b)
7. Have a committee prepare a report from the library on the growing of rice and its importance to the people of Asia. (2, b)
8. Have committees present to the class the contributions to civilization made by each of the following countries: (a) China; (b) India. (3, a)
9. (a) Have pupils present reports on each of the following: Mohammedanism, Hinduism, Buddhism, Confucianism.
   (b) Discuss each in class and compare it with Christianity. (3, a)
10. (a) Discuss China's treatment by European nations after the Opium War of 1840-1842. (3, b)
    (b) In what way would this treatment affect relations with the western world today?
11. "Britain's treatment of India won friends for her in Asia." Discuss this statement. (4, a)
12. Discuss the reasons for the war in Indo-China and ways in which it might have been avoided. (4, a)
13. List the main problems facing Asiatic countries today and have the class discuss ways in which they may be solved. (4, a)

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UNIT TEN

CANADA AND THE WORLD'S BUSINESS

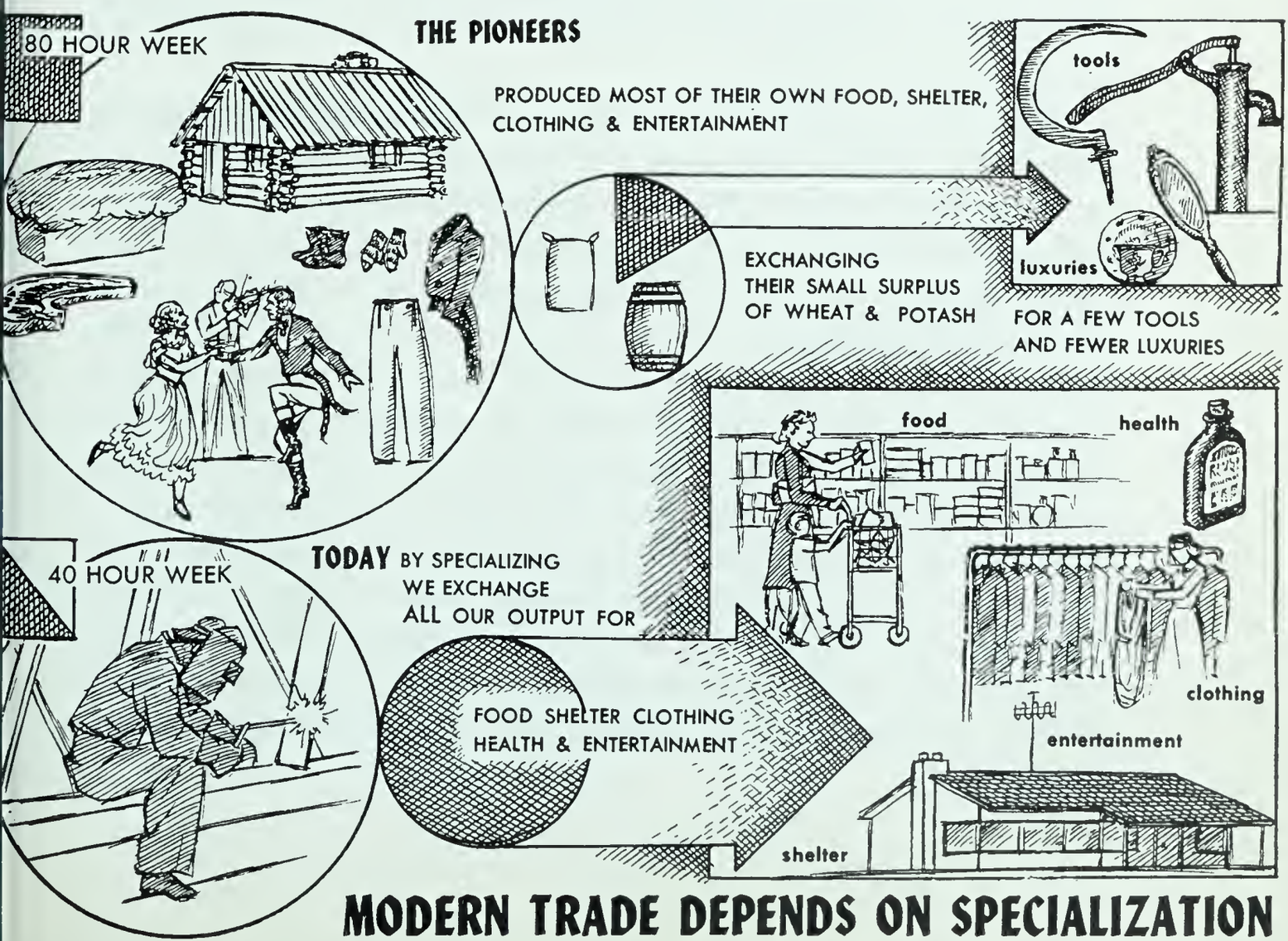
1. *Trade Develops as Man Uses the Earth's Resources*
2. *World Trade Today — Opportunities and Barriers*
3. *Finance and World Trade*
4. *Trade and World Security*

1. Trade Develops as Man Uses the Earth's Resources

(a) The Meaning of Trade. In Toronto in the early summer you might see the gaily coloured flags of many nations waving from downtown department stores, and in the big hotels encounter well-dressed men in turbans and ladies in graceful Indian saris. You might then go out to the exhibition grounds, and there view gleaming wonders of modern machinery, beautiful textiles and artcrafts, and hear many foreign languages spoken, as business men of different lands explain their wares, discuss terms, and place orders with one another. And you would know that this was Canada's International Trade Fair, sponsored by the

Canadian government to bring together Canadian manufacturers and merchants with buyers and producers from all over the world, for the purpose of promoting international trade. This special international fair—held not for the general public, but for the traders of the world—has attracted representatives from more than thirty countries. Trade fairs indeed, have had a long history in Europe; but the fact that Canada's is the only one in North America plainly shows that our country is well aware of the value of world trade, and the need to make every effort to stimulate it.

Nor is this matter of trade, and Canada's part in it, a remote or shadowy subject. It closely affects all of us from day to day. How dull and drab life would be if there were no exchange of goods between one country and another! For Canadians there would be no orange juice, cocoa or coffee for breakfast, little variety in our clothes, and no full-length moving pictures to see – just to mention a few of the things we receive from other countries. Even



more important, there would be no jobs for hundreds of thousands, perhaps millions, of Canadians, if we could not sell surplus goods outside our borders. World trade makes Canada a leading country; without it, we could barely exist, if at all.

We may see the meaning of trade better, if we look at examples of it that are closer to home. Trade, we shall find, depends upon specialization, and this is an age of specialization, as one can easily see. Think of the contrast between our own lives and those of our pioneer ancestors. The pioneers made their own clothes, their own soap, sometimes their own furniture and shoes. They grew practically all their own food, and cut their fuel from the surrounding forest. They often did their own 'doctoring' and pulled their own teeth. Thus they were little dependent upon the outside world, but theirs was a hard and often narrow existence. Today we depend upon a vast number of specialists. We rely upon the plumber, the electrician, the baker, the bricklayer, the doctor, the entertainer, and many more such 'experts' to do their work for us, while in return we do some for them. And the result of this is that everyone benefits, and is better off than if one tried to do everything for oneself.

What has happened in our own community has happened in the world at large. Each country, because of its climate, or its natural resources, or the skills of its people, is noted for special products, which are produced in large quantities for sale abroad. These goods, in short, are 'traded' or exchanged for others that the country does not specialize in. Canada, for instance, produces newsprint and lumber, grain and fish, and certain minerals, far beyond the ability of the Canadian people to use them. Great Britain specializes in things like textiles and machinery, France in wine and perfume, the Argentine in beef, and India in tea and cotton. Such goods can be produced so cheaply in these places that it is economical to carry them long distances and sell them in foreign countries. The matter of cost is very important. We in Canada, for instance, could grow oranges and lemons in specially built hothouses, but it is many, many times cheaper to bring them a



Courtesy Canadian International Trade Fair

INDIA DOES BUSINESS IN CANADA

Here at Canada's Trade Fair representatives of many countries display the products of their native lands.

thousand or more miles from California or Florida. And so there is an important trade in American citrus fruit coming to Canada —and in Canadian newsprint going in the other direction.

Some countries are far more dependent on world trade than others. We can see a great contrast by comparing Canada and the United States. The latter country, with its immense population, and its extremely varied climate and natural resources, does most of its trading within its own borders, between one part of the country and another. To be sure, world trade is highly important to the United States, but much less so than to Canada. Because of our small population and less varied climate and resources, we export and import to a far greater extent, in regard to our size, than do our American neighbours. Thus conditions affecting world trade can be a matter of life and death to Canada. A world depression always cuts down trade, and a world war can cut it off entirely

with many countries. Hence Canada has her vital stake in world peace and world prosperity, because she depends on trade.

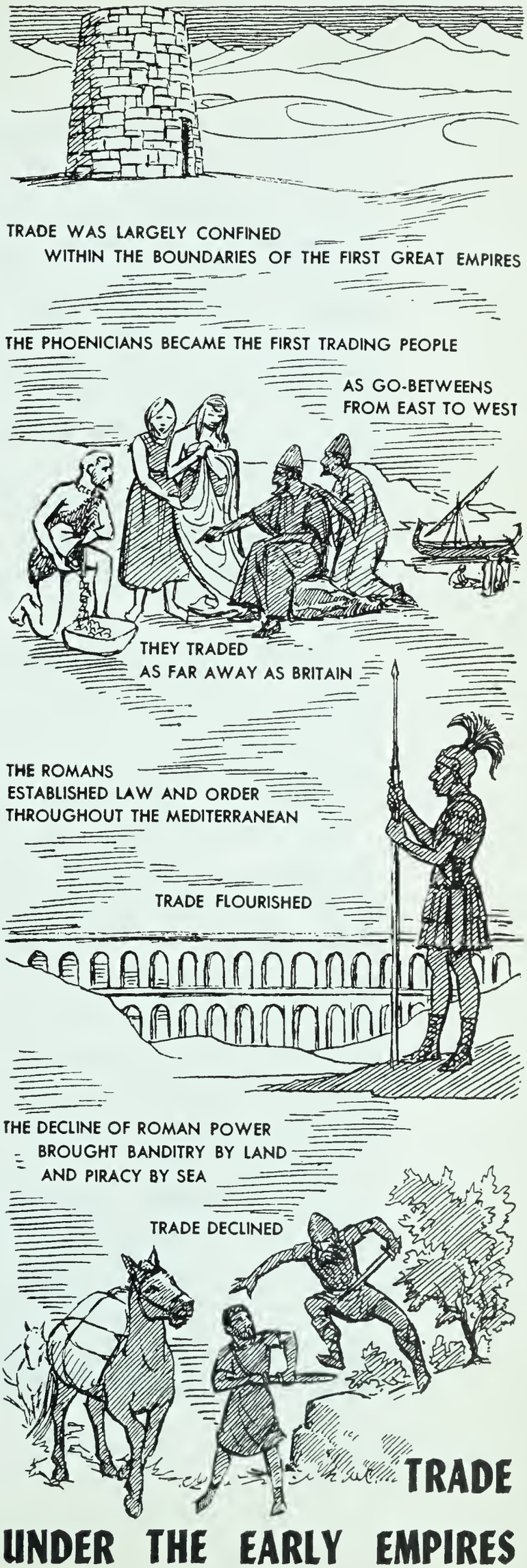
(b) Origins and Early Growth of Trade. Trade or commerce among the nations is more important today than ever before. In fact, the importance of trade has grown steadily through the years, as all parts of the world have been drawn more closely together. Thus it is hard for us to imagine a time when trade was unimportant or even non-existent. Yet such was the case among primitive peoples at the dawn of civilization. Perhaps we can understand these people, our remote ancestors, if we compare them with primitive peoples of our time, for instance, those who live in the interior of Africa or on certain Pacific islands. These Africans or Polynesians have a very simple economy. One tribe may hunt, in which case their whole life and customs will revolve around the hunt, from which comes all, or nearly all, of their food and clothing. Another group may live mainly by fishing. Still others, perhaps more advanced, may pasture goats or other domestic animals, or engage in some simple farming. But until they learn to develop the resources about them effectively, they use up almost everything they produce just keeping themselves alive and clothed, and have little left over to trade with other groups.

Even among the most primitive peoples, however, some trade usually occurs. For instance, natives of the coast, who live by fishing, may exchange some fish with natives further inland who raise some pigs or vegetables. Each side thus gets a change of diet. Such exchanges usually are on the basis of 'barter', that is, a direct trade of this article for that, without the use of money. Many hard and fast customs are observed in this exchange which would seem quaint to us. For instance, sometimes the trading is done by women alone. Perhaps this is not so strange, however, since women still do most of the shopping!

The first kind of trade among peoples at the dawn of civilization was usually in such goods as stones for weapons or for ornaments. As a rule food was not an important article of exchange. Gradually, however, some peoples began to acquire special skill

in developing resources, which led to a widening of the field of trade. New methods in the working of metals might be discovered, for instance, and new resources thus be made available. Or the climate of a region might give certain people a big advantage in growing dates, or olives, or some other product. Hence a surplus in these goods would be built up, and a few enterprising and daring men would take it to some other region to get rid of it and try to gain something in return.

The first trade of any importance took place up and down rivers. It was too dangerous for small primitive boats to venture out on the seas or oceans, and too burdensome to carry goods any distance overland. The Tigris and Euphrates rivers in the Middle East, and the Nile in Egypt, saw the first appearance of important trade as man developed the fertile farmlands of these areas. It is no accident that the beginnings of western civilization also first occurred along these rivers. Commerce and civilization have always been closely connected. For with the exchange of goods came the exchange of ideas and improvements in methods of making things.



TRADE UNDER THE EARLY EMPIRES

Eventually commerce expanded beyond the limits of the rivers. Overland trade became possible when the Arabs began to use camels for caravans across the Middle East that went on trips lasting many days or weeks. Ships were improved so that it became possible to move out across the seas, especially over the Mediterranean, the next great centre of civilization. About 1200 B.C. the trading people known as the Phoenicians began to dominate the trade of the Mediterranean Sea, establishing cities and settlements from Tyre and Sidon on the east, to Sicily and to Carthage in North Africa on the west. Trade routes spread out: they reached from India at one end to northwestern Europe at the other. Phoenicians brought tin from mines worked in ancient Britain, and, according to the Bible, ivory, apes and peacocks from Africa to King Solomon!

Money now came into general use for the first time. This was a great convenience in making trade more flexible; for instead of having to trade your fish, say, for grain, which you did not happen to want at the time, you could take your return in money and with it buy something else that you did want to have.

From about 700 B.C. the Phoenicians gave way to the Greeks as traders, and they developed and extended the world of commerce centred on the Mediterranean. With the conquests of Alexander the Great, Greek traders even reached India and central Asia, to exchange wool and grain and metals from the West for dyes and silk and spices from the East. The Greeks in turn were succeeded by the Romans as the dominant people of the Mediterranean. The Romans were not noted as a commercial people, but they did make one contribution that has always been vital to effective trade; namely, the establishment of law and order. Before the days of the Romans, piracy and robbery were constant risks in the life of the trader. In fact, the trader himself was apt to be a part-time pirate, obtaining goods by force when someone would not trade with him. But the Romans, with their genius for law and government, were usually successful in maintaining peace and order throughout the vast domains of their Empire. Thus flourish-

ing trade, wealthy cities, and a high standard of living marked the great days of Rome.

With the internal disorders and the barbarian invasions which brought the fall of the Roman Empire in the fourth and fifth centuries, A.D., the development of trade received a serious setback. Once again piracy and brigandage became common. A number of small feudal governments succeeded one large one, and countless obstacles to trade were set up. For instance, the 'robber barons' in their castles along the Rhine and on other rivers exacted heavy toll from merchants passing by. Economic life shrank back, and became centred on the local lord's estate, or manor. The manor was often very nearly self-sufficient – which meant, of course, that since it did not depend much on the world outside, it had to struggle along with very little as a result.

Trade was a minor factor in the life of western Europe for several hundred years after the fall of the Roman Empire. For many centuries after the rise of Mohammedanism in the seventh century, the most active commerce was carried on by the Arabs, who entered on the period of their greatest activity. For the Arabs in these years, the extension of their Moslem religion and the extension of their trade went hand in hand. Their merchants reached into Africa for slaves and ivory, and eastward to India and China for silk and satin, tea and jewels.

From about the eleventh century onward, however, Christian Europe began to revive, and to mark out new trade routes. The Crusaders, who fought against the Moslems in the Near East, were really as important in the history of commerce as they were in the history of religion, since exchanges of goods and ideas with the more advanced East were a by-product of this fighting. The Crusades led to the rise of Venice, the rich Italian city-state. It became a funnel, through which passed the trade between the eastern Mediterranean on the one hand and northern Europe on the other. In northern Europe, trading activity was centred around the towns of Belgium and the Netherlands near the mouth of the Rhine, and among the German 'Hanse' towns bordering mainly on the Baltic.



STIMULATED A REVIVING EUROPE

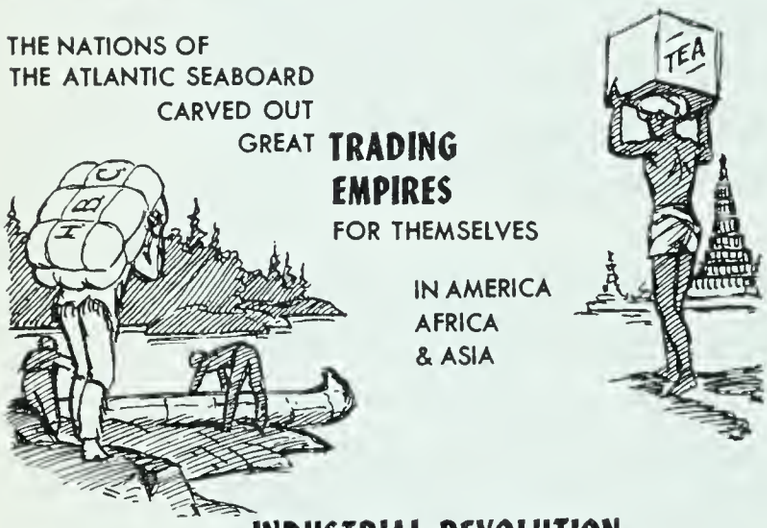


THE VENETIANS BECAME THE FIRST GREAT TRADERS OF THE WEST

THROUGH THE **VOYAGES**
OF COLUMBUS & DA GAMA
EUROPEAN TRADE
REACHED
INTO VAST NEW AREAS OF THE GLOBE

THE NATIONS OF
THE ATLANTIC SEABOARD
CARVED OUT
GREAT **TRADING EMPIRES**
FOR THEMSELVES

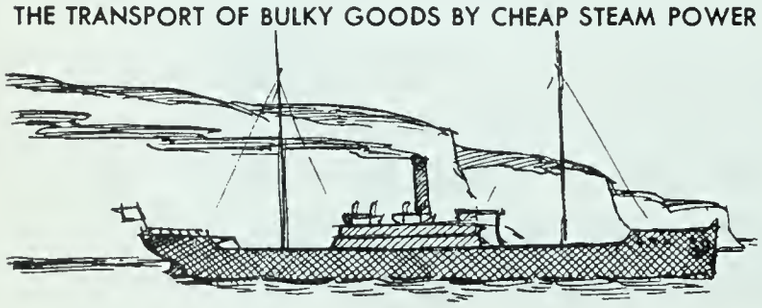
IN AMERICA
AFRICA
& ASIA



INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION
IN BRITAIN BROUGHT ABOUT
AN INCREASE IN POPULATION
AND INDUSTRY THAT MADE HER
"THE WORKSHOP OF THE WORLD"



FREE TRADE AND
THE TRANSPORT OF BULKY GOODS BY CHEAP STEAM POWER



ACCELERATED RISING
STANDARDS OF LIVING ACROSS EUROPE AND CREATED
DEMANDS FOR "NEW NECESSITIES" AROUND THE GLOBE

THE RISE OF WORLD TRADE

By the fifteenth century, which is usually thought to be the end of the Middle Ages, commercial activity flourished as never before. Again the West largely exchanged its woollen cloth, grain and metal products for the luxury goods of Eastern lands.

(c) The Rise of Modern World Trade. After about 1450, however, began the greatest revolution which world commerce has ever known. It grew out of the voyages of exploration around the southern end of Africa to India and the Far East, and across the Atlantic to the American continents. As a whole new world overseas opened up to Europeans, the main centres of commerce shifted away from Italy and the eastern Mediterranean, where they had been for so many centuries, and became concentrated on the open sea coast. The Atlantic seaboard countries – Portugal, Spain, France, the Netherlands, and England – rose to be the great commercial leaders. And each of these countries, we know, carved out large trading empires in the Americas and in Asia.

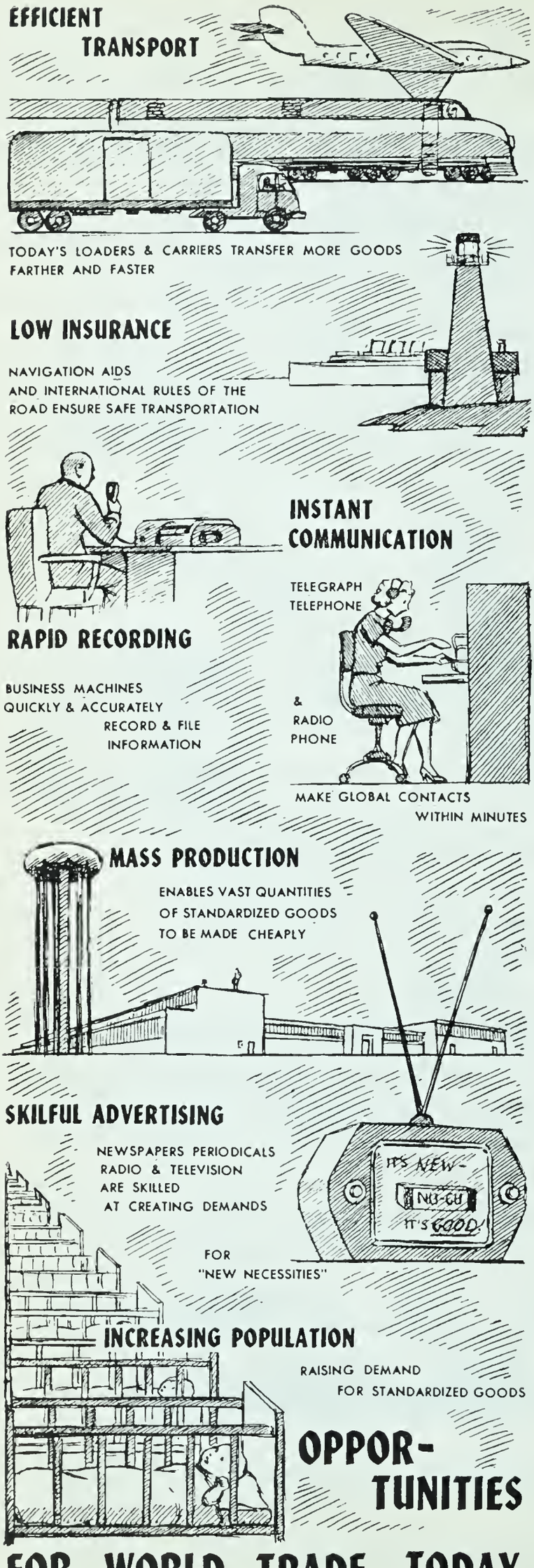
Goods rare or unknown before in Europe came flooding in, as men began to develop new resources overseas – tobacco from Virginia

and the Spanish New World colonies, furs from the Canadian forests, and sugar from the West Indies. Gold and silver also poured in from Spanish American mines, while far more Eastern products came by way of the ocean trade. Moreover the rising colonies in America and the growing contacts with India and the Far East provided far wider markets for European goods. And so on both sides of the world, trade grew by leaps and bounds.

By the seventeenth century, therefore, trade was worldwide for the first time, and it was largely water borne. Ships from the Atlantic countries set out upon voyages that would have seemed incredible a century or two earlier. Each country was determined to expand its commerce at the expense of others, with the result that a long series of wars over empires and overseas trade followed, in which Britain was the final victor. Britain thus emerged as the greatest trading nation in history. With the world's most powerful navy, and the largest merchant marine, her greatness was clearly 'founded on the seas'.

Another revolution affecting world trade almost as much as the one we have just noticed took place from about 1750 on. This, of course, is the Industrial Revolution, in which Britain again led the way. Her new factories required immense quantities of raw materials, especially cotton, that had to be imported from overseas, mainly from the southern United States. With a large proportion of her people engaged in factory production, Britain could no longer feed herself. Great amounts of food, especially grain, were needed from many parts of the world. On the other hand, she now exported cloth, coal, machinery and a wide variety of manufactured products to every region of the globe. During Queen Victoria's long reign this small island was well called the 'workshop of the world', as she developed her wonderful industrial resources and skills.

What was revolutionary in this, as far as trade was concerned? Mainly, that bulky goods, the necessities of life, now became the leading articles of commerce. In earlier centuries each country had been largely self-sufficient as far as its main food supplies were concerned. Moreover, there had been relatively little movement



over long distances of such heavy and bulky products as coal; the costs of carrying such goods were too high. Therefore the chief items of trade had been luxuries, such as spices or perfume, or relatively light but valuable products, such as sugar, tobacco or furs. But with the introduction of the large and powerful ocean-going steamship, after about 1830, it was possible to carry far larger cargoes and move them much more rapidly and cheaply. Bulky goods were now easily transported across the oceans —ore, coal, steel plates and rails, lumber, grain and so on.

The steam engine also brought a new age in land transport — in fact, the coming of the railway was the greatest single improvement in land transport that the world has ever seen. For the first time heavy and bulky products could be carried overland quickly and cheaply. Inland water transport was also made easier by the construction of canals and the dredging of rivers. Accompanying these improvements in communications were important political changes. Within each nation internal customs barriers and other ancient trade restrictions were swept away. Most countries still kept tariffs on foreign imports,

but export taxes were ended, and the greatest trading nation, Great Britain, was completely on a free trade basis by the end of the 1840's. The result of these and other developments was a volume of commerce between and within nations unknown before in the world's history. And this went hand in hand with the opening up of still greater resources of foodstuffs and raw materials, as for example, the western Canadian wheatlands, Australia's sheep runs, and Rhodesia's copper mines — all of which led to ever improving standards of living and advancing world prosperity.

Such was the picture of world trade when the First World War broke out in 1914. By this time Great Britain had to share her leading position with other great powers, notably the United States, Germany and Japan, which had also become highly industrialized. But before 1914, the world was peaceful, economic activity was expanding, and there seemed to be opportunity for all. The First World War ended this state of affairs, however, as it brought widespread economic waste, and later, depressions and new wars. New problems of world trade appeared which are still with us today. And so we must look at the state of world commerce at the present time, noting the directions it takes, and the obstacles that prevent greater trade.

2. World Trade Today — Opportunities and Barriers

(a) The Main Features of Modern Trade. If we knew only one set of facts, we would expect international trade to be flourishing mightily at the present time. The means of transport — especially ships, railways, trucks, and aeroplanes — are larger, faster, and more powerful than ever before, and thus great quantities of heavy and bulky products may be easily and safely carried over long distances. Ingenious loading and unloading equipment, refrigerated ships and freight cars, and efficient sorting and weighing machinery are only some of the devices that hasten the exchange of goods. The telegraph, the radio-

telephone, and modern business machines and methods simplify the placing and handling of large orders. Sound insurance systems take much of the risk out of handling goods. Modern machine methods have vastly increased production, both of manufactures and raw materials, with the result that a great quantity of goods are available for exchange.

These and other factors explain the tremendous amount and complexity of modern world trade. There is a greater exchange of goods than ever before in history. Yet there is another set of facts which is also very important, and they have to do with serious barriers that lie in the way of trade. Some of these are tariffs, import restrictions, restrictive trade pacts and control of strategic materials — all of which we must explain in a moment. Yet it must be said, "What do these matter, if there is more trade now than ever before? Why not be satisfied with what we have?" The answer to these questions is that all the countries of the world are now so tied together and so dependent on one another that any serious checks to trade may cause grave damage in many lands. Moreover, some developments of modern world trade which seem to be thriving are probably only temporary, and so trouble may follow. A brief survey of some of the main features of modern international trade may give us a better understanding of these problems.

Goods traded among the nations of the earth are of two main kinds: primary products (raw materials) and finished goods. This is of course a very simple division, since some goods go through many stages of processing. For instance, hides are a primary product, and shoes are a finished product, but leather is a semi-finished product. But let us think first of primary products, whether from the farm, the mine, the forest or the sea. Many parts of the world specialize in their export. Wheat, to be made into flour and bread, or wood pulp, to be made into newsprint and newspapers, are such products exported from Canada. Oil is the primary product exported by the countries of the Middle East, coffee, fruit and meat

come from Latin America, tin from Malaya, wool from Australia, and so on.

Countries whose exports are mainly primary products are usually either 'underdeveloped' lands or relatively new countries. Sometimes they lack the technical skill or the resources to process their own raw materials. Sometimes it is just not possible to do so. Canada could hardly make all her wheat into bread and try to sell the bread in foreign countries. It would go stale, and besides, other countries have different tastes in bread. The fact remains, however, that there is less profit to be made in selling primary products than in selling finished goods like automobiles or machinery. Hence, a country depending solely on the export of raw materials is likely to be less prosperous than one that has some manufacturing. Moreover, the former type of country is at the mercy of its customers in other lands. And a depression, it appears, always hits the countries producing raw materials first and hardest—for it is usually the case that the prices of primary products then fall faster and farther than those of finished products.

On the other hand, certain countries specialize in the export of manufactured and finished goods. Great Britain, we have learned, is noted for woollens and cottons, machinery and automobiles. Germany is particularly known for optical and chemical goods, Japan for textiles, and the United States for machinery, electrical equipment and a host of 'consumers' goods' (like radios and washing machines). These are only a very few of the manufactures exported by these and other industrialized countries. Such nations usually need to import large quantities of raw materials, especially from the less 'advanced' countries, in order to supply their factories and mills. This is specially true of Great Britain, a country rich in skill but by now comparatively poor in raw materials. It is much less true of the United States, which contains within its own borders a large proportion, though by no means all, of the materials needed for its industries.

Thus, much of world trade consists of the export of primary products from underdeveloped or fairly new countries to the highly

industrialized lands, and, on the other hand, of the export of finished goods from industrialized countries to markets throughout the world – both in underdeveloped and in other industrialized countries. The full picture, however, is much more complicated than this, since many countries import and export both raw materials and manufactured goods. The United States, for example, buys many manufactured luxury products like fine china and perfume from Europe, while it exports vast quantities of agricultural produce overseas. In fact, the United States stands out among the industrialized countries of the world because it not only has great industries but also an enormous food surplus. On a much smaller scale, this is also true of Canada.

(b) Tariffs and Other Restrictions. In a perfect world, one would expect each country to concentrate in producing the goods for which it it is best suited by climate, location or resources, or by the skill of its inhabitants. In this case, products would come from the areas where they could be made or grown most cheaply and efficiently. They would move freely over the earth's surface according to the demand for them, and each consumer would be able to buy the best product at the lowest price. Such conditions might exist in an ideal world, but they certainly do not in the actual world we know. Instead, there are many barriers to the free movement of goods from one country to another, and the first of these that must be noticed is the tariff.

We mentioned earlier that the profit made from selling finished goods tends to be higher than that from selling raw materials. For instance, Argentina prefers to put some of her beef into cans, because canned beef brings a better profit than raw beef. As a result, each country is tempted to establish manufacturing plants, if at all possible, for this can raise the whole standard of living. But a new country, beginning to manufacture, is at a serious disadvantage in comparison to a country where industry is already large and well-established. The latter country can manufacture great quantities of goods cheaply, and so can send its products over long distances and still undersell the manufactures of the

new country that is struggling to get started. Accordingly, the 'infant industries' of a new country are given protection by a tariff, which places a tax or 'duty' on imported foreign manufactures, making them cost more, so that home-made products may have an advantage over them in the market. Tariffs have been widely used for this purpose, to protect home industries till they are strong and well developed and able themselves to mass-produce goods cheaply. However, it seems easier to decide to aid a rising industry than to determine when it is strong enough to allow its tariff protection to be reduced.

There is another reason for tariffs. No country wishes to be at the mercy of another. If one country has to import all its shoes or all its weapons from outside, it may have its whole life disrupted if the supply is cut off. It is therefore thought better to make certain goods at home, even if they cannot be produced at the very cheapest prices, rather than depend for them upon other countries which might sometime become unfriendly, or otherwise unable or unwilling to keep up the supply. Hence tariffs may

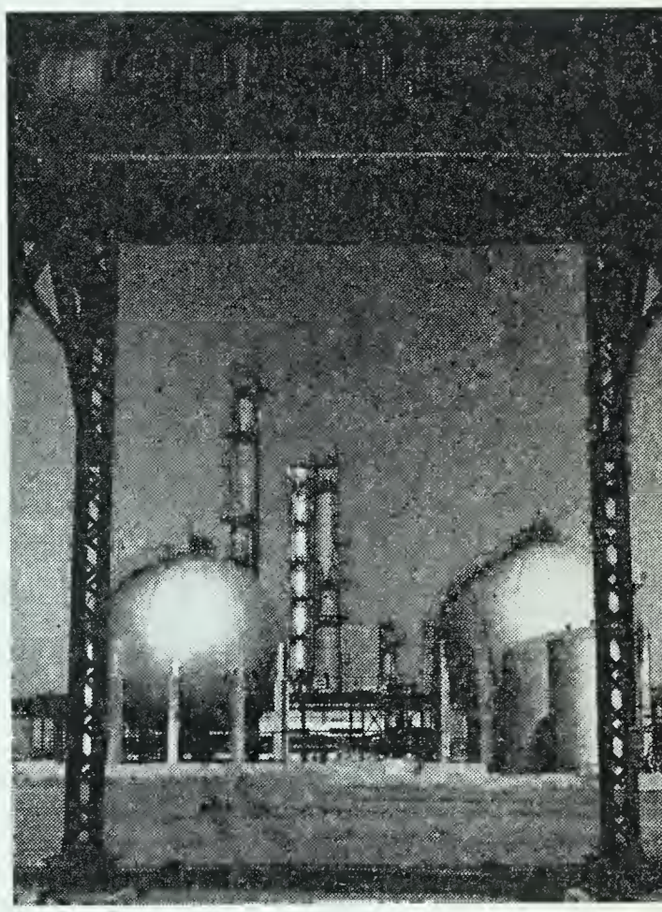


be imposed to raise the price of foreign goods, so that people will look to home producers for their regular supplies. Furthermore, tariffs have often been put on foodstuffs to encourage certain kinds of agriculture at home and to avoid dependence on foreign countries for the necessities of life. National pride and desire for national security are thus strong factors behind tariffs.

Still another reason for tariffs has to do with the standard of living. Countries where wages of workers are high (and so the goods they make cost more) are anxious to protect their people from having to compete against cheap products made in other lands where labour is paid far less. After workers have been trained, sometimes over long years, to do certain kinds of work at certain levels of wages, they insist upon this kind of protection. Thus groups of manufacturers and labour unions both agree on the need for tariffs to keep out goods made by low-paid labour. Since these groups often speak with a powerful voice, and with many voters behind them, they make their wishes felt in the tariff laws of democratic countries.

Are tariffs good or bad? On the good side we should note that they may help to develop countries, of which Canada is an excellent example. Without 'protective' tariffs it is probable that our country could never have built up its flourishing industries and transcontinental railway systems, or even preserved any real independence from the United States. In a world of independent nations, each of which must defend its people from possible enemies, tariffs seem to be inevitable. On the other side, however, is the fact that tariffs are often maintained when no real national interest is served. Instead they may be used to protect selfish groups which happen to have much influence on the government. Also, they may be so high that home industry becomes inefficient, behind the safe tariff wall that keeps out cheaper foreign goods. Then the consumer pays unnecessarily high prices—and often for inferior products. Worst of all, tariffs can block and limit the flow of world trade, thus bringing about violent strains in certain countries, which must find markets for their goods or perish.

Tariffs are not the only barriers to world trade. Other controls imposed by governments can be even more effective. In our own day, governments, especially those of dictatorial or totalitarian countries, control and direct trading activities much more closely than in former times. In some countries there are 'planned economies', government schemes for managing and developing a nation's whole economic life. These may concentrate on building up certain industries; and so any foreign competition with these industries may be prevented, not just by a tariff, but by wholly forbidding competing products to be imported. A less extreme device is to restrict imports by establishing 'quotas', which permit only limited amounts of various products to be imported within a certain period. Foreign trade is thus carried on above all to further the government's long-range plans, and the immediate welfare of consumers may be placed second.



National Film Board

POLYMER PLANT AT SARNIA, ONT.

Canada's great artificial rubber industry developed as a result of wartime shortages.

The trade of such countries that plan and control their whole economic life is often carried on through 'bi-lateral pacts', that is, one country agrees to an exchange of certain products with another over a limited period of time. Such pacts tightly restrict the flow and direction of trade, and sometimes are used by strong countries to secure domination over weaker neighbours and to arrange trade on their own terms. The Soviet Union has bi-lateral pacts of this sort with communist Europe. Certainly they do not tend to encourage the free growth of world trade.

Conflicts between great powers also raise obstacles to trade. Economic strength and military power are closely linked together. Hence

a great power may try to prevent any trade being carried on that will strengthen its actual or potential enemies. This is particularly true of trade in 'strategic materials', that is, those which may be used for military purposes, such as metals, rubber and oil. The list of such materials is very long; almost any product may have some military value in complex modern war. During the 'Cold War', the period of strain between the Soviet Union and the countries of western Europe and the Americas, the desire to prevent materials of military value going to one side or the other reduced trade between East and West to a trickle. After the government of communist China entered the Korean War against the forces of the United Nations, many countries agreed to cease selling strategic materials to that regime. It is often said that the best way to ease tensions between East and West would be to ease trade restrictions, but each side is reluctant to take the first step for fear of giving an advantage to the other.

3. Finance and World Trade

(a) The Gold Standard and its Collapse.

One of the most serious obstacles to international trade in the modern world lies in the field of finance, and it is so important that we must give it a section to itself. Many of you may have heard such mysterious terms as 'dollar shortage', 'currency convertibility', and 'sterling bloc', and wondered what they meant. Perhaps these problems can best be understood by seeing how they came into being.

The conditions of international trade in the nineteenth century, and down to 1914, were very different from what they are today. In those years the important trading countries were on the 'gold standard', which means that the money or currency of each country had a definite value in terms of gold. You could exchange the paper money for gold at any time. The value of gold, in turn, was the same the world over, and you could always tell what the British pound, the French franc or the American dollar was worth in terms of gold. It was important for each country to maintain a

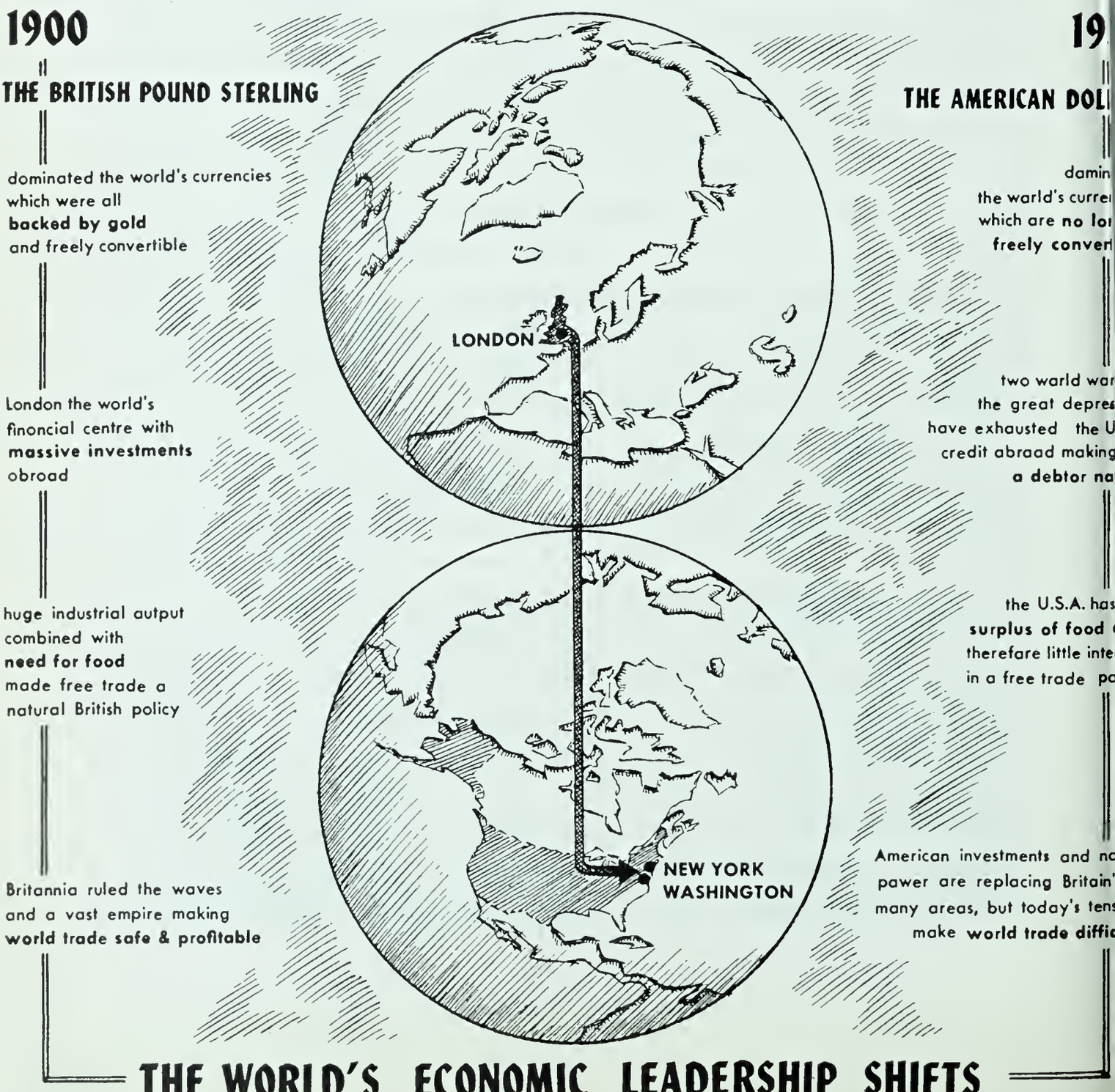
good reserve of gold to 'back' its currency, for that kept up its value. Within this generally accepted system, the currencies of all the countries thus had their own definite value, being worth so much gold, and knowing this, a person could easily exchange one for any other. That is, traders could readily 'convert' a sum of dollars into a sum of francs, or change pounds sterling into German marks, for purposes of buying goods abroad. And a trader selling goods to any particular country was quite willing to take payment in the currency of that country, because he could convert the currency into whatever kind of money he needed.

Another feature of this system was that trading operations were entirely in the hands of private persons and companies. Governments did not interfere, except in limited ways to protect national interests, which did not affect the essentials of this system of international trade and finance. The dominant nation in the system was Great Britain. London was the centre of world finance, where all currencies could be exchanged and all kinds of money borrowed. The fact that Britain was also the world's greatest trading country, buying and selling immense quantities of goods all over the world, kept the machinery running smoothly. Finally, the British navy helped preserve throughout the world the peace and stability which were vital to the operation of this system.

This trading structure was already breaking down by 1900 with the rising industrial power of Germany and the United States. The First World War then dealt it a shattering blow, from which it never recovered. To be sure, some return was made to the old ways during the 1920's, but the depression of the 1930's, followed by the Second World War, completely destroyed the old structure beyond hope of recall. During wartime, governments took emergency measures to tie their economies into their war efforts. Price controls, rationing of scarce materials, licenses to make non-military goods, permits to buy goods in short supply, and so on, were used in time of war, and they were often carried over into the years of peace. Governments now intervened to fix the extent and nature of international trade as they had not before 1914. Another effect

of war and depression was to increase the demand within nations for self-sufficiency. Nearly every country tried to reduce its dependence on outside supplies of goods, wherever possible. This trend played havoc with trade.

The twentieth century upheavals also upset the economies of many countries in serious ways. Some were utterly devastated by enemy armies, with the result that natural resources were destroyed or looted, factories and houses bombed, crops burned, and much personal wealth and property wiped out. Other countries, not actually invaded, had to use up their wealth so fast in fighting



wars that they were impoverished by the time peace returned, and thus their ability to trade was also reduced. Still other countries stayed out of the wars, and so enjoyed great trading opportunities while their competitors were busy fighting, which brought them rapid economic expansion. But with the coming of peace, these countries often lost their wartime markets, and their over-expanded industries were left in grave difficulties. Furthermore, the waste and heavy demands of war brought a terrible shortage of many goods in different lands. This sort of scarcity tends to force prices higher and higher, in what is called inflation, and because of inflation many people cannot afford to buy, since prices are too high for them. Inflation then was a widespread result of twentieth century wars, and this also upset and cut down world trade.

Wars affected trade in still other ways. When markets were cut off during the many years of fighting, it was difficult to recover them with the return of peace. The former customers had found new suppliers or had developed different tastes. War also destroyed hundreds of the merchant ships of trading countries. This was particularly serious because for many trading nations the merchant fleet was a large earner of money from foreign countries, money that could be used to pay for imports. Finally, several countries, especially Great Britain, had large investments in foreign countries which they had to sell in time of war to buy munitions and weapons. Their financial position was much poorer after the war, since they no longer received the income that had formerly come in from these investments.

With all these blows at normal economic life being struck in such a short time, many countries were on the edge of ruin. Their peoples looked to their governments for help and protection against mass unemployment and poverty. The answer of governments was usually to impose more controls, finally including controls on currency. The international gold standard was gradually abandoned, in favour of each government managing its own system of money. That is, a nation's currency would be given an artificial value that had nothing to do with its worth in terms of gold, and the govern-

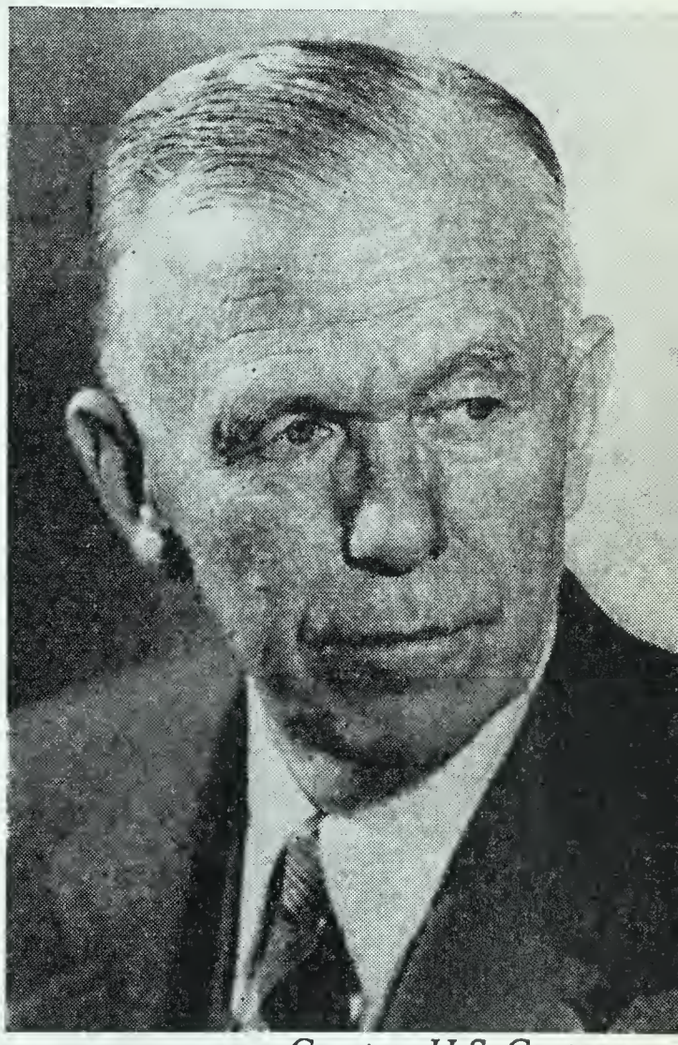
ment might declare that its money was now worth more or less according to the way it viewed the nation's changing financial needs. Hence currencies were no longer convertible one to another, because their official value was not based on a single international gold standard. It now became difficult or impossible to sell goods in one country and use the money of that country to buy goods in another country. Although currencies were no longer based on gold, this valuable metal could still be used for payments in foreign trade. But, except for the United States, the great trading countries no longer had sufficient supplies of gold to carry on much trade on this basis.

(b) The Present Unbalanced State of World Finance. Another highly important feature of the new world economic situation is the dominant place of the United States. While other countries had been weakened by wars, in the ways described above, the United States was greatly strengthened; for wartime demands vastly increased her output, while she suffered no war damage at home. She had goods to sell that were badly wanted in war-torn and otherwise impoverished countries. And people there were so eager to buy American goods that they were ready to use all available funds to pay for them.

Spending these funds, however, seriously weakened the economies of their own countries, and governments were forced to step in to limit purchases from the United States. On the other hand, these countries still had to buy some American manufactures and raw materials to repair their own economies and even to keep them running. For instance, they often had to buy American machinery and metals to rebuild their war-damaged factories, or American tractors to cultivate their farmlands effectively before they could get back to their pre-war levels in producing foods and manufactured goods for their people. One way out of this difficulty was to sell some of their products to the United States, in order to obtain American dollars with which to pay for their purchases in that country. Here again they ran into trouble, since their products were often not badly needed or wanted by Americans. Besides, high

American tariffs tended to keep out foreign imports. The United States was exporting far more to other countries than she was importing from them.

The fact is that the United States was not really well suited to be the leader of a new world economic system. The United States had never bought immense quantities of raw materials and food from other countries, as Great Britain had during its periods of economic leadership. On the contrary, United States policy had long been aimed at protecting its own economy from the competition of outside countries, and was not one of freely inviting their trade.



Courtesy U.S. Govt.
General George C. Marshall

It was impossible to reverse this policy suddenly, because too many interests in the United States depended, or thought they depended, on its continuance. Indeed, no matter what policy was followed, a continental country like the United States, that produces so much of what it needs for itself, would never rely on foreign trade as much as an island country like Britain. The foreign trade of the United States is more important to other countries than it is to the United States itself! How, then, were other countries to buy the American goods they had to have, if they could not acquire sufficient dollars by selling their own products in the American market?

A solution, at least a temporary one, was found when the United States decided to advance large sums of money as an aid to foreign countries, which they could use to pay for American goods. In 1948 the Marshall Plan was adopted with this purpose in view. Through such aid enormous American exports to European and some other nations became possible—exports such as factory machinery, new railway equipment and many

raw materials which helped them to improve and strengthen their economies. At the same time some European countries, notably Great Britain, made great efforts to sell goods in the United States, and adjusted their currencies to encourage such exports. Lastly, attempts were made to increase world trade by international agreements to lower tariffs and currency controls, and to remove other restrictions.

These were not the only efforts made in fairly recent years to stimulate international trade. We should also note the existence of two organizations, the International Monetary Fund and the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, that were set up at the end of the Second World War. Over forty nations joined the Fund by making contributions to it according to each one's ability to pay. The capital thus built up has been used to ease problems of making payments in international trade. Over forty nations also joined the Bank, making contributions on the same basis of ability to pay. The Bank has made loans to aid in postwar reconstruction and, more particularly, to assist in the development of so-called 'backward areas'. These two organizations have certainly been useful, but postwar problems have proved to be too great to be solved by the limited funds at their disposal.

Despite these various efforts, international trade did not come back to the old pre-1914 basis, when goods had been exchanged in one vast world-wide pattern. Communist countries now traded



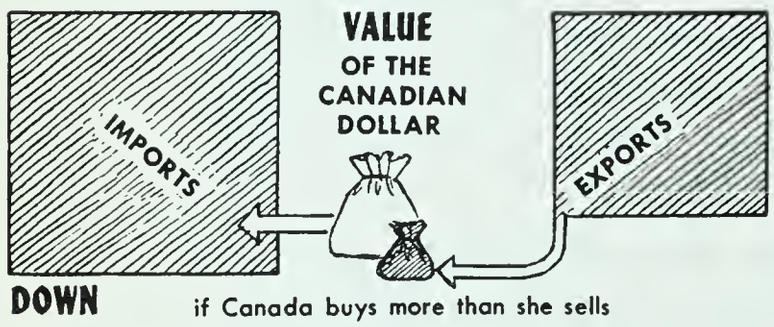
THE WORLD'S TRADING BLOCS

among themselves. Certain European countries also made limited agreements for trade. Countries of the 'sterling bloc', which included most of the British Commonwealth, except Canada, formed another trading system, linked to Britain's pound sterling. Finally, there was the 'dollar area', dominated by the United States, and including Canada and the Latin American countries. Trade within any one of these systems was fairly easy, but it was difficult between the countries of one system and another. One big problem was that the dollar of the enormously wealthy United States remained so much more valuable than most other currencies. Other countries therefore continued to use various controls on their own currencies, to prevent still more of their wealth being drained to the American dollar area.

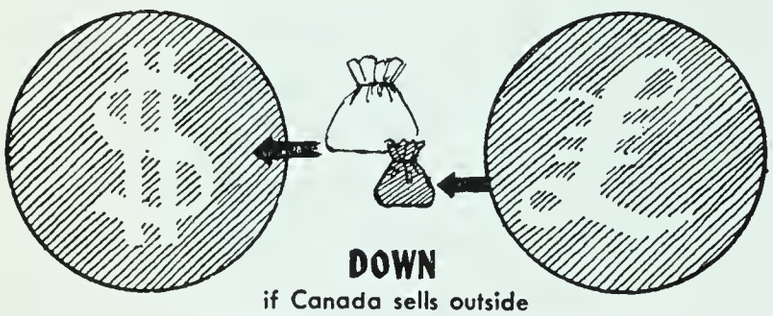
How have all these developments affected Canada? Without knowing any details we could at once assume that the effects were very serious indeed, because of Canada's heavy reliance on foreign trade. In fact, in the first years after 1945, Canada suffered some of the same problems in its trade with the United States as did European countries. Canadians in these years were buying more from the United States than they were able to sell there. There was nothing very new in this. What was new was that Canadians were no longer able to convert the pounds sterling acquired in their profitable trade with Britain into United States dollars to pay for American goods. In this situation, Canada adopted the same methods used by European countries. In 1947 strict checks were placed on American imports into Canada. To take one example, Canadians were unable to buy imported American lettuce at the grocery stores in the winter of 1947-48. Also, the value of the Canadian dollar was lowered by the government, which discouraged Canadians from importing American goods because now they had to spend more of their own dollars to buy them.

Such measures were only temporary in Canada, unlike Europe, since the Canadian economy quickly became much stronger. American demand for Canadian goods, especially raw materials, increased steadily, placing the trade between the two countries on

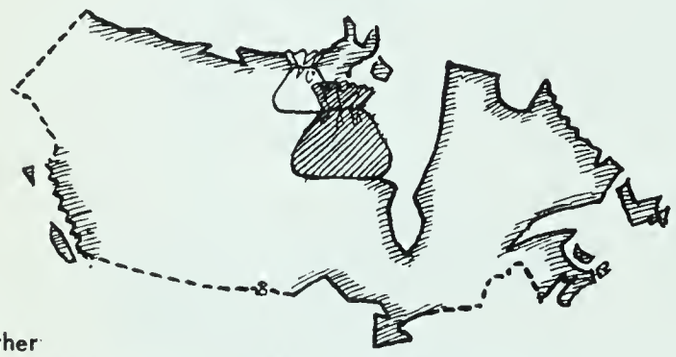
a more equal basis. Moreover, the remarkable post-war boom in Canada soon caused Americans to pour large sums of United States dollars into this country in new investments, which made it easier for Canadians to buy American goods. As these events took place, the Canadian government removed restrictions on American imports, and later ceased to control the Canadian dollar. In fact, there was proof of Canada's strong new economic position when the Canadian dollar even rose to become more valuable than the United States dollar in international trade.



DOWN if Canada buys more than she sells



DOWN
if Canada sells outside
dollar area but spends inside it



UP
if other
countries especially the U.S.A. invest money in Canadian industry



FACTORS THAT AFFECT THE VALUE OF OUR CURRENCY

Nevertheless, we must not assume from these facts that Canadians were altogether happy at the state of international commerce. A much greater proportion of Canadian trade was now with the United States than ever before, and there was danger in this. If it suddenly became difficult to sell enough in the American market, as well could happen, it might not be easy to find other outlets for our products. For this and other reasons, Canada favoured all measures which would break down restrictions on international trade, and restore the old world-wide trading area.

Indeed, most countries favoured a return to freer world trade. Yet it was rather like being in favour of virtue and against sin. The trouble was that each country wanted freer trade with other nations, but still sought to protect itself in various ways, and this led

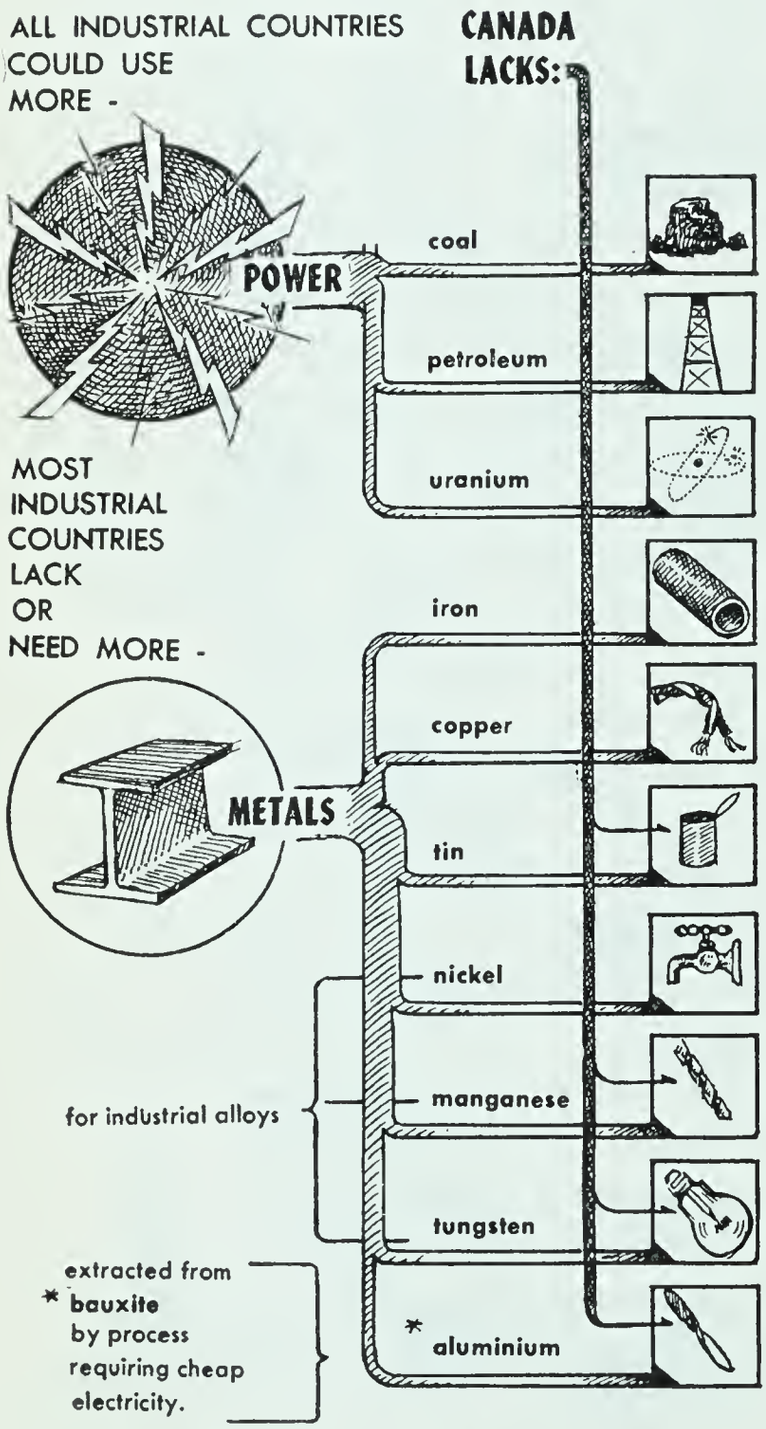
the other countries to do the same. Tensions between nations, currency problems, tariffs, inflation, fear of depression, and great differences in economic strength and living standards between one area and others, continued to be the main obstacles to freer world trade. And to abandon controls over trade, in such a world, seemed to be too dangerous a jump into ice-cold water for nearly all governments everywhere. Thus the problems of world finance and trade are still very much with us.

4. Trade and World Security

(a) The Attempt to Secure Strategic Materials. Our final concern in this unit is to see the connection between the goods that move in world trade and the great questions of war and peace. Such a connection is not new in our own day, since control of certain materials has made countries powerful in the past, and struggles to secure needed goods have sometimes led to war. Britain's extensive coal supplies and her ability to sell large quantities of this valuable fuel did much to assure her nineteenth century leadership. The fact that the United States makes about half of the world's total output of steel goes far to explain that country's power in the twentieth century. On the other hand, Japan's lack of oil helped to produce her policy of expanding towards oil-rich areas, and so did a great deal to bring on the Pacific war of 1941-45. The coal-fields of the Saar have been fought over several times by France and Germany. In general, the location of certain vital products or materials, and the extent to which they are either kept by one country or made available to others, are of supreme importance to world peace and order.

Although control of vital products has always been important, the problem has reached a new peak in recent years. A modern industrial state, either in peace or in war, needs a wide variety of materials, and these may be spread all over the globe. No one country has within its own borders adequate supplies of all the materials it needs. Some countries are so lacking in basic materials

that they can never hope to become great industrial powers. while others have such rich supplies and varieties of them that they seem at first sight to be almost self-sufficient. Of these latter countries, the United States and the Soviet Union are the most notable. Yet both these countries must depend upon outside sources for certain essentials. For instance, the United States has to import tin, natural rubber, and manganese for making steel; and other materials could also be mentioned.



STRATEGIC MATERIALS FOR CANADA AND THE WORLD

The term 'strategic materials' is used to describe those products which are essential to industry and defence, but of which any one country does not have adequate supply. No two countries will have exactly the same list of strategic materials. For instance, nickel is not a strategic material in Canada, because this country produces a large part of the world's supply. On the other hand it is strategic in the United States, which imports over half of the Canadian production. Similarly, bauxite is a strategic material for Canada, because it is the ore used in Canada's great aluminum industry, and all of it comes from outside the country, mainly from British Guiana, Jamaica and French West Africa.

Canada has many strengths and many weaknesses in the matter of strategic materials. In addition to nickel, Canada has a near-monopoly on the world's production of asbestos. Our country has more than

adequate supplies of copper, lead, zinc and platinum, and some other minerals. Foodstuffs and wood products are other goods produced in ample amounts. Possession of these and other materials in exportable quantities is one of the major sources of Canada's importance in the world.

On the other hand, the list of strategic materials missing in Canada is also long. In addition to bauxite, Canada imports many metals used in alloys and for industrial purposes. Coal is imported from the United States in large quantities. Despite recent discoveries, over half the oil used in Canada still comes from outside sources. Rubber, tin and various textile raw materials are other strategic materials for Canada. Our industrial and defence programmes would suffer crippling blows if the supply of these products were cut off.

Canada is not, however, an isolated nation. It has close associates in the British Commonwealth, in its American neighbours, and in the North Atlantic Treaty Organization. With these friendly and allied countries and with some others, Canada can exchange many kinds of strategic materials without worrying about the consequences, since these countries are part of the non-communist world. On the other hand, Canada and its allies are careful to limit their sales of strategic materials to communist countries, since such materials might be used to increase the war-making powers of possible enemies. Until tensions between the western and the communist worlds are eased, there are certain to be restrictions on the exchange of many goods between them.

It is easy to understand why a great power should wish to be sure of uninterrupted supplies of strategic materials. Much diplomacy and foreign policy have this end in view. British and American activities in the Middle East are closely connected with making available the great supplies of oil in that region. The desire of the United States to be on friendly terms with Latin American countries comes partly from the fact that a large number of strategic materials are imported from the southern continent. When one part of the world falls under hostile control, as did China after

1949, efforts are redoubled to safeguard other sources of key materials. Some countries, particularly the United States, have engaged in 'stockpiling', that is, the buying up and storing of large quantities of materials from abroad against the time when they may be needed. Stockpiling is understandable, but it can have an unsettling effect on prices and on world economic conditions.

The close concern with strategic materials raises other problems. Very often these materials are found in poor and undeveloped areas. The oil of Iran, the tin of Bolivia, the rubber of Indonesia and Malaya, and the manganese and uranium of the Belgian Congo are a few examples. Where such areas are still ruled as colonies, as for instance the Belgian Congo, its products are readily obtained by the controlling country, because of its power in the area. Some of the areas have, however, recently attained national independence, as, for example, Indonesia, a Dutch possession until the 1940's. New countries like this are often very anxious to guard themselves against being exploited, that is, being used simply to suit the interests of large industrial countries. Still other countries, like Iran and Bolivia, have also become very sensitive about exploitation, especially as they have become more nationalistic. These countries have sometimes even been willing to forego the sale of some of their products abroad rather than endanger their independence—although this can also be very damaging to them.

We can thus understand that the need for strategic materials and the efforts to obtain them, have often caused much ill will between peoples. The large industrial countries can best solve this problem by respecting the independence and pride of new nations, by entering into fair commercial agreements with them, and by helping them to improve their standards of living. These people will no longer accept the colonial approach; the big industrialist powers must no longer think of underdeveloped countries as areas to be exploited. Trade can greatly benefit both sides if its basis is fairness and mutual understanding—and in this way it can strengthen goodwill and peace among nations.

(a) Trade and the Problem of Peace. We have come a long



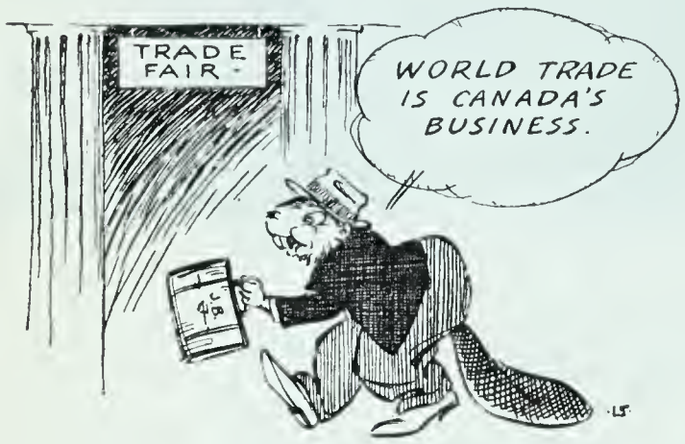
United Kingdom Information Office

THE LARGEST OIL REFINERY IN THE WORLD
The Anglo-Iranian Oil Company's refinery at Abadan

way since we observed how early inhabitants of Mesopotamia began to exchange articles up and down the Tigris and Euphrates rivers some six thousand years ago. We have seen that the advance of civilization and the expansion of commerce have gone hand in hand, because the movement of goods also meant the movement of ideas. We have noted, on the other hand, that the search for scarce and valuable materials can lead to collisions among nations, sometimes ending in war. Finally, we have seen that the complex nature of modern industry requires goods and articles that are spread all over the world. An elaborate and highly efficient system of transportation and communication now exists, to speed the exchange of goods in our twentieth century. Nevertheless, a large number of barriers and obstacles also exist to prevent the easy movement of goods. And this can lead to trade depression, unrest and even war—

for the great depression of the 1930's certainly helped to bring on the Second World War in a troubled Europe.

We live in a world in which the control of important materials gives power and prosperity, and the lack of them leads to poverty and desperation. It is clear, then, that problems of international trade are closely related to problems of world peace and security. A secure and peaceful world largely depends on people everywhere having easy access to the goods that are necessary for their well-being and safety. Otherwise they may collapse into internal disorders and communism, make war on their neighbours for 'living room', as did the fascists of Germany and Italy, or generally endanger world security by trying to get by threats of violence what they cannot get by peaceful trade.



It may be that international economic problems cannot be properly solved until there is some form of world government. At any rate, it is important to remember that economic problems are always in the background of efforts to build world organizations such as the League of Nations and the United Nations, which will be examined in the next unit.

Finally, we should remind ourselves that Canada has a vital concern with all these matters. A large part of the incomes of Canadians comes directly or indirectly from international trade. And we cannot afford another world war which might arise from unsettled problems of trade. It is also important to remember that Canada is one of the most favoured countries of the earth, blessed with a wide variety of rich natural resources, which are under our own control. Other peoples, who are as intelligent and responsible as we are, lack these advantages, and consequently have lower standards of living and less stable government. Canadians may rejoice in their good fortune, but they must also be generous, sympathetic and co-operative in their trading relations with other people who have not had as much good luck.

Learn by Doing

1. Today a man usually spends his time making one product or rendering some service. In pioneer days a man looked after most of his own wants. Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of the two ways of life. (1, a)
2. Have pupils explain to the class the contribution to trade made by each of the following: (a) Arabs using camels; (b) Phoenicians; (c) Greeks; (d) Romans. (1, b)
3. On an outline map mark with coloured pencils the routes of explorers after 1450. List the products exchanged with each country. (1, c)
4. Have a committee obtain information from the Canada Yearbooks to show Canada's growth in manufacturing and export trade from 1930 to 1954.
5. Prepare graphs of Canada's exports and imports. (2, a)
6. Prepare a debate on whether or not tariffs are desirable. (2, b)
7. Some people claim that wars bring about prosperity. Have the class discuss this statement. (3, a)
8. Discuss the reason for the Canadian dollar being worth more than the United States dollar in 1954. (3, b)
9. Prepare a corrugated cardboard map of the world and place pins bearing the names of strategic materials in the correct places on the map. (4, a)
10. Discuss the reasons for Canadians showing concern about the living standards of people in other countries. (4, b)

Facts to Know

1. What special products are the following countries noted for? (a) Canada; (b) Great Britain; (c) France; (d) Argentine; (e) India. (1, a)
2. Why is foreign trade more important to Canada than to the United States? (1, a)
3. What effect did the Crusades have on trade between the East and the West? (1, c)

4. (a) In what way did trade help to make nineteenth-century Britain the greatest nation in the world?
   (b) What kind of goods did Britain largely trade?
   (c) How did these differ from the trade carried on in early days? (1, c)

5. (a) List the factors which help trade among countries today.
   (b) List the factors which hinder trade. (2, a)

6. Explain the meaning of the terms: (a) tariffs; (b) restricting imports; (c) planned economies; (d) strategic materials. (2, b)

7. What were some of the advantages of the gold standard? (3, a)

8. (a) Why, with an abundance of food in the world, are the people of many countries still hungry?
   (b) Why was Britain more suited to developing world trade than is the United States? (2, b)

9. What purposes have the International Monetary Fund and the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development served? (3, b)

10. List some of the strategic materials of each of the following countries: Canada; the United States; Japan; Russia. (4, a)

11. In what way may the attempt to gain strategic materials lead to ill will? (4, a)

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UNIT ELEVEN

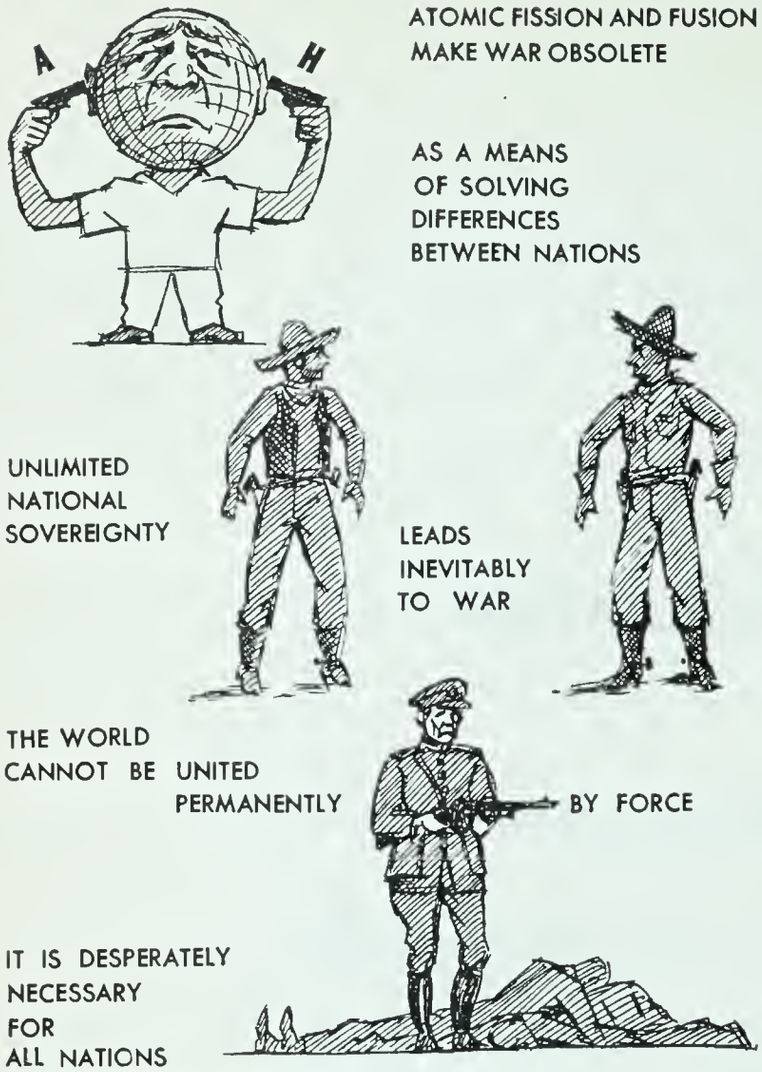
CANADA AND WORLD ORGANIZATION

1. *World Security Requires World Organization*
2. *The United Nations, the World Security Organization*
3. *Other United Nations Organizations*
4. *Regional Security Pacts and Groupings*
5. *Prospects for World Co-operation*

1. World Security Requires World Organization

(a) World Government, Yes or No?

There is a common saying today that the world must unite or perish. For the first time in the world's history men have it in their power through the hydrogen bomb to destroy the civilization that was so painfully built up over thousands of years. Large-scale war among Great Powers now promises to be something far more horrible and destructive than was the Second World War (1939-1945). Civilization survived that war, although shaken and weakened; it seems unlikely that it would come through another world war, except perhaps in isolated portions of the earth. This statement is not wild imagining. It is the sober conclusion of leading



PROSPECTS OF WORLD GOVERNMENT

scientists and statesmen. We go the rounds of our daily lives on the edge of a man-made volcano, which could erupt with world-destroying force.

Is there any way to prevent the volcano from erupting? The answer to this question is breath-takingly simple. Abolish war between nations by erecting a world government. It can certainly be argued that we live in 'one world', linked by ties of common interest, trade, and a general desire to avoid utter destruction. It is now possible from any given starting point to reach any spot on the globe more quickly than one could travel from Montreal to Toronto a little over a century ago. Why not unite the peoples of the world under one government? Once Germany and Italy, and some other countries, existed only as a number of small states, and were later united into national states. Could not the shrunken globe, under the threat of the hydrogen bomb, also be brought together under one governing body?

The desire to avoid war is not the only factor making for world unity. The countries of the world are interdependent in many ways. No nation has a self-contained

economy and, as we noted in Unit Ten, it is probable that many barriers to international trade cannot be removed until there is more co-operation between governments. Many other fields of great interest and importance cut across national boundaries. We also saw in Unit Five that the leading religious bodies have members in various parts of the world, and that in every land there are activities that lead to international associations—such as the Boy Scouts, the Red Cross, and world scientific organizations. In fact, a scientist, artist, chess player or stamp collector may have more in common with people of similar interests in far off countries than with people on his own street. These are only some of the bonds that draw peoples of all countries together.

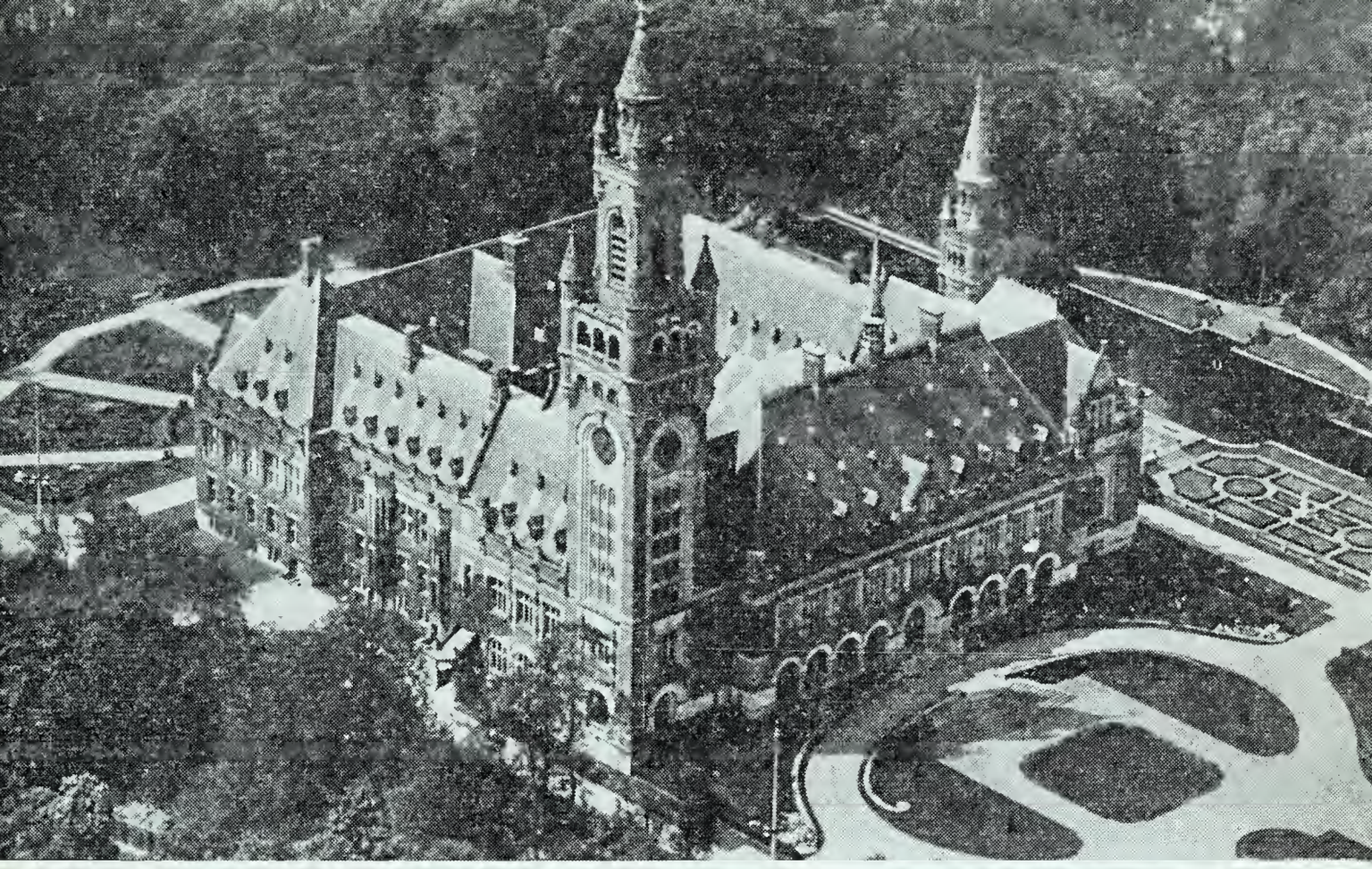
As yet it is too early to know what effect the hydrogen bomb will have on the trend towards world government. One fact is certain, however; there are great obstacles in the way of bringing all countries together in political union. It is well to understand these obsacles, in order to have a realistic view of the problem. Of these barriers to unity the greatest is probably national pride. The people of each nation feel that they have a special character, made up of a unique mixture of language, religion, geography, laws, literature and so on. This is the thing usually called nationality, and it is instilled into the citizens of each country by means of songs, poetry, display of flags, wearing of uniforms, study of the nation's history, especially of its heroes, observance of national holidays, and in many other ways. Thus the people of each nation grow up to feel that their first loyalty is to their own country.

An effective world government, however, would require that our first loyalty be to all humanity on the globe. It would mean subordinating our own national interests to the interests of the larger whole. It would mean that we no longer would have as much control over our own affairs as we have now. It would be hard for most people, whatever the country, to accept such a situation. National feeling is still too strong. There is probably a trend towards world government, but we must expect the process to be a very slow one. In the meantime we should try to understand

what has been accomplished in this direction so far, and what part Canada has played in efforts at international organization. In the present unit we are going to examine this important subject in more detail than we have been able to give it before.

(b) Attempts to Organize—the League of Nations. The problem of international organization is not as old as we may sometimes think. It was hardly a problem two thousand years ago when most of Europe was part of the single great Roman Empire. Even after the breakup of that Empire, Europe had some kind of unity throughout the Middle Ages, since nearly everyone acknowledged the leadership of the Pope, even in many affairs of this world, and the Church's laws and the Church's officials had a good deal of influence in each feudal state. From about 1450 onwards, however, national states came into being which recognized no superior of any kind. Each state was regarded as legally equal to every other state, regardless of size, and each state was a law unto itself, particularly in the matters of war and peace. Relations between these 'sovereign' states were conducted through diplomatic officials. The system of sovereign states spread from Europe throughout the world. We are so used to it that we assume it is part of the natural order of things; yet it did not always exist, and there is no reason to think that it always will exist.

The idea of uniting the sovereign states has appealed to many men during the past five hundred years. One approach, which attracted idealists and dreamers, was to secure a voluntary agreement on the part of all to join in a grand federation or union. This idea was talked about but never tried. Another approach was to bring about unity by force. The most notable attempt at this kind of unity was made by Napoleon, who at one time had all of continental Europe under his control. In the twentieth century Hitler also succeeded in dominating nearly all of Europe for a few years. The lesson of these two attempts, as well as of less successful ones not mentioned, is that international union cannot be achieved by force. The use of force arouses so much bitterness and hatred



Courtesy Miller Services

An Airview of the Peace Palace in The Hague

that sooner or later the would-be conqueror is brought down. We may therefore give the rest of our attention to efforts at international organization that have been based neither on visions nor on force. The true road to world organization must be both practical and peaceful.

When we look for the background of modern international organization, we may best find it in 'arbitration'. This is a practice by which two or more countries submit a dispute to outside commissioners, and agree to abide by their decision. Great Britain and the United States used this plan in the nineteenth century to settle their differences. Many observers felt that there would be a great advantage in having a permanently established court of arbitration always available to hear disputes, and this feeling became especially strong from the 1890's onwards, when the Great Powers were engaging in an armaments race. The result was the establishment of the Hague Tribunal, which was set up in the Netherlands in 1907 as an international court of arbitration. This was not a real court as we usually understand the term. That is, there was nothing, except public opinion, to require governments to sub-

mit disputes to the court, and the court had no means of enforcing its decisions. There certainly was no police force. Nor were governments willing to entrust matters of really vital national importance to arbitration. And so this and other attempts at international action failed, and the world was plunged into a terrible war in 1914.

The extent and horror of the First World War quickened the movement for some form of international organization. Influential private citizens in several countries pressed for a general association of nations that would prevent further wars. For hundreds of years peace conferences had been held to bring wars to an end. It was now proposed to set up a permanent conference of nations to keep the peace once it was made, and to make it worldwide, bringing in small countries as well as Great Powers.

The idea was taken up with great enthusiasm by President Woodrow Wilson, of the United States. After the war ended in November, 1918, Wilson went to the peace conference at Paris determined that an association of nations should be created. Other leading statesmen at the conference also wanted such an association, although there were many differences of opinion on details. Finally, by the spring of 1919, the Covenant of the League of Nations was written, the basic plan of the new organization, and made part of the Treaty of Versailles. It was a time of great hope throughout the world, since it was widely believed that the new League would put an end to wars for all years to come.

The original members of the League were the countries on the victorious side in the late war, as well as some nations that were invited to join, but other countries could be admitted by a two-thirds vote. A basic purpose of the League was to preserve the territories of each member from outside attack or 'aggression' by means of collective security. That is, if one member were attacked, others would come to its assistance, instead of remaining neutral as in the past. Each member agreed to allow disputes in which it was involved to be put up for arbitration or investigation. The

League would work for disarmament, and to end international evils such as the drug traffic.

All members of the League were represented in the Assembly, where each country had one vote, regardless of size. There was also a Council, on which the Great Powers in the League had permanent seats, and to which smaller countries could also be elected for limited periods. The headquarters of the League was to be at Geneva, Switzerland, where its permanent officials and employees resided and worked. Such were the essentials of the League of Nations as it went into operation at the beginning of the year 1920.



Miller Services

The Emperor of Ethiopia arrives to put his case before the League of Nations.

The high hopes held out for the League were never realized. To be sure, it did reduce international tension on a number of occasions, and it may have helped to prevent some small wars from breaking out. The League did very valuable work in other fields, by gathering information on social evils and obtaining co-operation among nations to put an end to these. Most important of all, it provided an example on which future efforts at international organization could be based. But on the great question, the prevention of wars in which the Great Powers played a part, the League totally failed. The first major defeat came when Japan invaded Manchuria in 1931. The League found Japan guilty of violating the covenant, but that country responded by leaving the organization, and the war in Manchuria went on. In 1935-36 the League also failed to stop Italy's attack on Ethiopia. Finally, the League was unable to halt Nazi Germany's course of aggression which led to the outbreak of the Second World War in 1939. The League then closed down its activities, to be replaced in 1945 by the United Nations.

Why did the League fail? So many answers have been given

to this question that we can only list some of the most important reasons. The League received a blow at the start when the United States refused to become a member. Germany and the Soviet Union were other Great Powers outside the League at the beginning, although later both were members for limited periods. But the presence of all the Great Powers would not necessarily have saved the League of Nations. Another disadvantage was the connection between the League and the peace settlement of 1919. Countries defeated in the First World War associated the League with what they regarded as the unjust Treaty of Versailles. President Wilson's hope that the League would remove any injustices in the peace settlement was not realized. But the biggest reason for the failure of the League was the refusal of its members to be faithful to their obligations under the Covenant. When dictators rose up in the 1930's and began to attack their neighbours, other members who thought they were not immediately threatened did nothing effective to stop such aggression. The League could only be as strong as its members would allow it to be; and most League members had little faith in collective action in the 1930's. Thus the League of Nations did not make possible peaceful, orderly changes in the relations between countries, and it did not stop armed aggression.

2. The United Nations, the World Security Organization

(a) The Structure of the United Nations. Despite the failure of the League, many statesmen and students of world affairs agreed that there must be another attempt to form a worldwide association of nations. The Atlantic Charter, issued by President Roosevelt and Prime Minister Churchill in August, 1941, looked forward to "the establishment of a wider and permanent system of general security." On January 1, 1942, the countries fighting against Germany and Japan entered into an alliance to carry the war to a victorious conclusion, and these

countries termed themselves the United Nations. The alliance was joined by nearly forty countries before the war ended in 1945 The idea of transforming this alliance into a postwar association of nations was accepted in 1943, and in the next year discussions over details began at Dumbarton Oaks, near Washington D.C. On April 25, 1945, a conference made up of delegates from forty-eight countries met in San Francisco and drafted the nobly worded Charter of the United Nations Organization.

The purposes of the new organization are stated at the beginning of the Charter. Above all, its members aim "to save succeeding generations from the scourge of war", and also "to reaffirm faith in fundamental human rights, in the dignity and worth of the human person, in the equal rights of men and women and of nations large and small." In addition, the members are determined to maintain respect for treaties and international law, and "to promote social progress and better standards of life in larger freedom." The U.N. will not intervene in the internal affairs of any state, but it does intend, by pooling the strength of its members, to maintain peace and security.

There are a number of bodies within the U.N. that work to carry out these purposes. The two most important of these are the General Assembly and the Security Council. The General Assembly may be called the parliament of the United Nations. Sometimes it has been called the 'town meeting of the world'. Each member state is represented in the Assembly, and each has one vote in that body. Voting on all important questions is by a two-thirds majority; on the other questions it is by a simple majority. The General Assembly meets once a year, but special sessions may be called. The General Assembly has a wide variety of functions. All manner of international problems and disputes may be discussed there. It also undertakes studies of such questions, receives reports from other U.N. bodies, and supervises their work. The General Assembly also controls the U.N.'s finances by voting its budget. (In 1951 there were only six countries that made a larger financial contribution to the U.N. than did Canada.) New members may

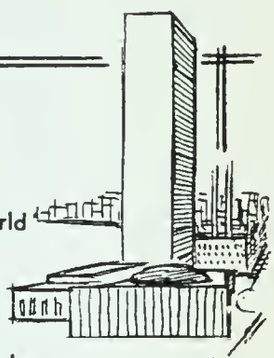
be elected by the General Assembly, which also chooses representatives to sit on other U.N. bodies.

The Security Council has a very different basis of representation from that of the General Assembly. In the latter the small countries are favoured, since each nation has one vote regardless of size, while in the former the Great Powers have a preferred position. There are eleven seats on the Security Council. Five of these are permanent seats, belonging to the United States, Britain, China, France and the Soviet Union. The other seats are filled by vote of the General Assembly for two year terms. Seven out of the eleven members must approve any action taken by the Security Council, and on all important questions the five permanent members must be in agreement. Thus any one of the Great Powers can block action by refusing to agree, which means it has the power of 'veto' (I forbid). The use of the veto, mainly by the Soviet Union, has often made the Security Council ineffective, with the result that the General Assembly, in which the veto cannot be used, has become relatively more important than the original framers expected. In fact, the Security Council has declined in influence because of the conflicts among the Great Powers.

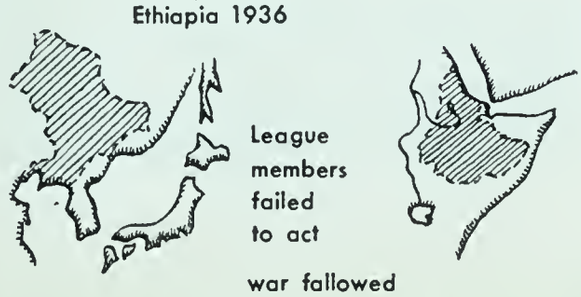
The Security Council has the "primary responsibility for the maintenance of international peace and security", and acts on behalf of all the members of the U.N. in this respect. It may investigate disputes and make recommendations. It may decide whether there is a threat to peace or a breach of the peace. In the case of aggression, it may call upon members to take action against the aggressor. That is, action to maintain collective security and punish aggression, perhaps by the use of armed force, lies in the hands of the Security Council, though one of the Great Powers can always block such action by the veto. A vote of the Security Council sent troops from the U.N. member countries to check communist North Korea's attack on South Korea in 1950, but this vote was taken at a time when the Soviet delegate was absent from the Council, and so could not veto. The Security Council also has a number of other powers, such as recommending new members for admission to the U.N.

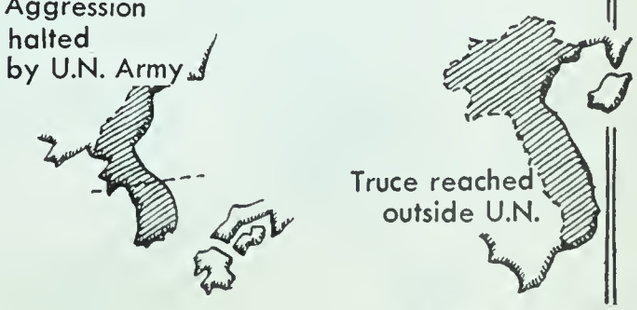
It is clear from this brief summary that the framework of the United Nations is similar to that of the League of Nations. Two basic principles are kept: that each member state shall have one vote, regardless of size, in the General Assembly, and that the Great Powers shall be dominant in the Security Council. The Security Council has the same defect found in the old League Council: all the Great Powers are not members of it, and some of the permanent members are not among the most important of the Powers. But the framers of the new organization had learned much from the mistakes of the League. The purposes of the United Nations are more simply, although more lengthily, stated, leaving less





	LEAGUE OF NATIONS	UNITED NATIONS
AIMS	**to prevent war** between members	**to prevent war** throughout the world
	similar declarations for peace and **the rights of man**	similar declarations for peace and **the rights of man**
	forum for discussion of world problems	**forum** for discussion of world problems
	promotion of **world organizations** to serve common interests	promotion of **world organizations** to serve common interests
ORGANIZATION	League Assembly **one vote per nation**	General Assembly **one vote per nation**
	League Council less dominated by great powers weakened by absence of U.S.A.	Security Council more executive power but limited by veto wider world representation
ACTION		
WORLD ORGANIZATIONS	useful work begun	useful work continued
TO PREVENT WAR	through sanctions and collective security	by naming the aggressor and calling on members to act
	TESTED Manchuria 1931 Ethiopia 1936	**TESTED** Korea 1950 Indo-China 1954





THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS AND UNITED NATIONS: A COMPARISON

scope for legal quibbles. Its machinery is also less complicated, and hence more flexible and effective than that of the League. Most important, it is easier to undertake measures of collective security under the U.N. Charter than it was under the Covenant of the League.

At the same time we must stress that the U.N., like the League, was originally based on the idea that there would be common agreement among the Great Powers, and that idea, unfortunately, has proved false. Hence the U.N. has been changed by the split between the Soviet Union and the other Great Powers. Instead of being a true world association, it has tended to become a means by which the United States and other western countries maintain an anti-Soviet coalition, which is based on holding a two-thirds majority of the General Assembly. Nevertheless the U.N. has served the valuable purpose of keeping East and West in constant contact, making negotiation possible whenever there is anything to be gained from it.

(b) Canada and the United Nations. There is more to be said about the U.N., and we shall come back to it later in this unit. But we should pause here to examine what part Canada has played in these efforts to build world organizations that will prevent war and discourage aggression. First, we will remember that Canadians were highly enthusiastic at the prospect of joining the League of Nations in 1919. Canada became a member in her own right. This was the clearest recognition that had so far been accorded of Canada's national status. Separate membership in the League was important as proof of this country's 'coming of age' in the family of nations.

As we noticed in Unit Five, however, Canada was less enthusiastic about making the League an effective security organization. Since this country was not threatened by attack, there seemed little likelihood that it would ever need help from the League. For this reason, Canadian governments were unwill-



"WE KNOW BETTER NOW."

ing to make pledges or commitments to aid countries in danger. Our delegates even tried to weaken the League's security provisions. Nor would we back 'sanctions' to cut off oil to Italy, to prevent her attacking Ethiopia. Other and larger countries were just as short-sighted; yet we cannot be proud that we were wrong with the rest.

But Canada supported proposals to form a new international organization at the end of the Second World War. At San Francisco the Canadian delegates took an active part in working out the terms of the Charter, and their views were reflected in several of its articles. For instance, on the selecting of non-permanent members to the Security Council, it was decided that these members should not just be chosen by geographic location (to have countries from different parts of the world) but that account should also be taken of a country's ability to contribute to maintaining world peace. That is, Canada secured recognition of the existence of fairly strong 'middle powers' (like herself) that stand between the Great Powers and the small countries.

In the years since 1945 Canada has played a much larger role in United Nations activities than she ever did in those of the League of Nations. There are many reasons for the change. Most important of all, Canada like other countries has learned the lesson of the League's failure: that commitments must be made and risks taken if collective security measures are to be effective in stopping aggression. Thus in 1950 Canada willingly sent troops to Korea, an area in which she had no direct and vital interest, in order to punish armed aggression. Also, it has been much easier for Canada to take a positive attitude towards the United Nations when her great North American neighbour, the United States, was taking a leading part in the new organization. You will remember that the American Republic never became a member of the League of Nations.

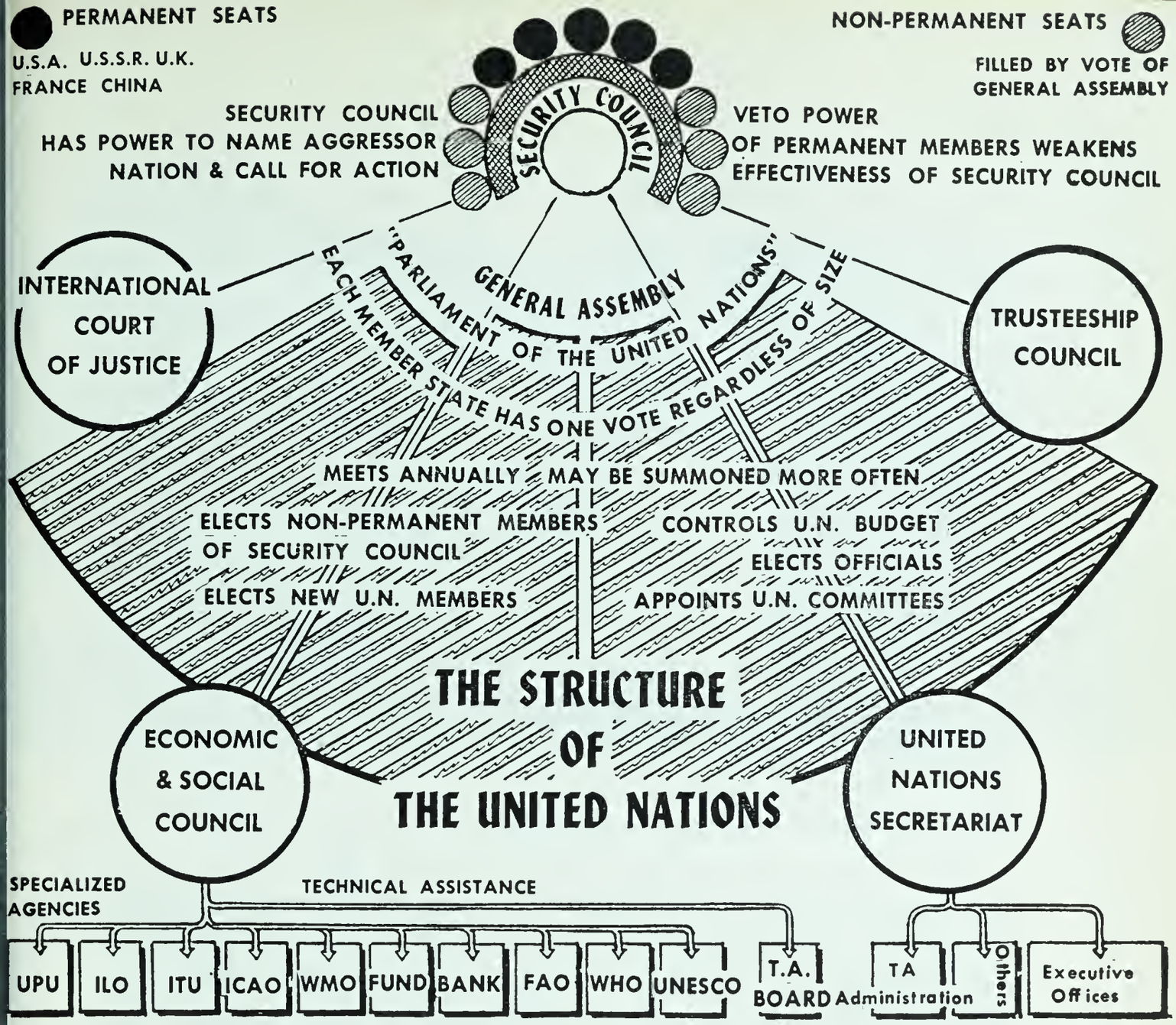
Finally, we must recall how Canada's own position has changed. By the 1940's and 1950's Canada was an immensely more powerful and wealthy nation than in the 1920's, and her leaders were more experienced in world affairs than in the earlier period. Her

weight has naturally been greater in the U.N. than in the League. As a result, Canadian delegates have been prominent in many of the U.N.'s most important deliberations and conferences—for instance, in atomic energy discussions, on the Korean War, and in making arrangements to stop the war between Israel and the Arab states in 1949. In summing up Canada's relationship to the new world organization we may say without bragging that while the U.N. has been important to Canada, our country has also been important to the U.N.

3. Other United Nations Organizations

Now let us return to look at other aspects of the U.N. organization. So far we have been introduced to the General Assembly and the Security Council, the two bodies most directly concerned with great international problems that may threaten the peace and security of the world. There are, however, several other important agencies of the U.N. which we should know about. These are: the Secretariat, the International Court of Justice, the Trusteeship Council and the Economic and Social Council.

The Secretariat consists of permanent, paid employees of the U.N., who work mainly at the headquarters in New York but also at other centres where U.N. activities are carried on. They are really international civil servants, and are chosen from among all the nations belonging to the U.N. The tasks of the Secretariat are to keep files and records, to carry on correspondence, and to co-ordinate all the varied activities of a vast organization. At the head of the Secretariat is the Secretary-General, who is the leading permanent official of the U.N. The first Secretary-General was Trygve Lie of Norway, who was succeeded in 1953 by Dag Hammarskjold of Sweden. Under the Secretary-General are a number of directing officers who supervise particular U.N. activities. Among these we should note the name of Hugh L. Keenleyside, a Ca-



nadian who has been Director-General of the Technical Assistance Administration, which aids under-developed areas.

The International Court of Justice is another important part of the United Nations organization. The Court hears cases which nations may agree to submit to it, and may act on certain other matters as provided in the Charter and in treaties. It has no power to enforce its decisions, but it may nevertheless aid in the solution of difficult problems, especially those of a technical nature. The Court consists of fifteen judges elected for nine-year terms, with no two judges coming from the same country. J. E. Read of Canada has been a member of the Court, with a term ending in 1958.

The Trusteeship Council supervises certain non-self-governing territories over which the U.N. acts as a kind of guardian. The purpose of the Council is to see that these colonial areas receive

fair and honest government and are not selfishly exploited. Since Canada has no direct concern with colonial problems, this country has not been active on the Trusteeship Council.

Lastly, we come to the Economic and Social Council which demands much fuller treatment than do the other bodies we have just described. This Council consists of eighteen members elected for three-year terms of office by the General Assembly. Canada has had two three-year terms on this body, the first ending in 1948, and the second in 1952. The Council has responsibility for carrying out the functions of the United Nations with regard to international economic, social, cultural, educational, health and related matters. Such matters bulk much larger in the work of the U.N. than they did in the League of Nations. The Council has set up a number of commissions to study such questions as human rights, the drug traffic, population problems, and the status of women; there are other commissions to study the economic problems of Europe, Asia and the Far East, and Latin America.

Many other activities are carried on under the supervision of the Economic and Social Council. Among these is the Expanded Programme of Technical Assistance to assist under-developed countries. Canada has contributed several million dollars to this programme. Another activity is the United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF), which works to improve the health and care of children in many countries. Canada has contributed to this fund as well as to other Economic and Social activities for the reconstruction of Korea and aid to refugees.

In addition to these activities, we should note the existence of ten specialized agencies, which are associated with the Economic and Social Council. These agencies are separate and independent bodies, but they submit reports to the Council and receive advice and assistance from it. Some of the U.N.'s best work is carried on by these agencies, and we should know something about them.

Two of these agencies existed long before the U.N. was founded, as we noted in Unit Five. The Universal Postal Union was founded in 1875, and has ever since served to organize and perfect postal



Courtesy National Film Board

THE INTERNATIONAL CIVIL AVIATION ORGANIZATION COUNCIL MEETS IN MONTREAL

services throughout the world. The UPU voluntarily associated itself with the U.N. The International Labour Organization was founded in 1920 in close association with, although separate from, the League of Nations. The ILO continued to function after the League declined, and also associated itself with the U.N. when the new world organization was set up in 1945. This organization exists to improve labour conditions and living standards in all countries.

Three agencies which may be considered together are the International Telecommunication Union (ITU), the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO), and the World Meteorological Organization (WMO). The ITU dates back to 1865, and assumed its present name in 1932. Its purpose is to set up international regulations for telegraph, telephone, and radio services, and thus help make these services available to the public at the lowest possible rates. The ICAO was established in 1947, and is the only U.N. agency to have its headquarters in Canada, at Montreal. Its purpose is to promote the establishment of interna-

tional standards and regulations for civil aviation through adoption of safety measures, new technical methods, and simplification of government regulations. The WMO came into existence in 1950 in order to improve and extend the means for gathering and exchanging weather information. Since nothing is more international than the weather, and since no country can forecast conditions within its own borders without knowledge from outside, there is real need for this agency.

Two other agencies that may be grouped together are the International Monetary Fund (FUND) and the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (BANK). The Fund was set up in 1945 to make it easier for countries with different currencies to co-operate with one another, and thus to increase trade. It sells foreign currencies or gold to member nations for international trade and gives advice on monetary problems. The Bank was also established in 1945, and uses its capital to aid in the reconstruction and development of the territories of its members. It makes loans and encourages private foreign investment. The two agencies have helped to solve many serious economic problems.

Next we should note the Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO) and the World Health Organization (WHO). The FAO, which was founded in 1945, aims at making more efficient the production and distribution of all food and agricultural products. It promotes the use of new techniques, combats epidemics, and provides technical assistance in many fields. WHO came into being in 1948 with the purpose of improving the health of peoples in all countries. It spreads knowledge about diseases and preventive measures, carries on research projects, and provides training in public health methods. The first Director-General, now retired, was a Canadian, Dr. Brock Chisholm.

Lastly, we should examine what is possibly the best known of all the specialized agencies, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), which was established in 1946. This agency tries to increase understanding among peoples of all nations, and to promote popular education

and the spread of knowledge. We often hear rather vague talk about 'One World'; the purpose of UNESCO is to further the sense of a world community by making it possible for scientists, artists and educators of all countries to work together. Emphasis is placed on human rights, the rule of law and the ending of discrimination. UNESCO has encountered much opposition. Narrowly patriotic people in some countries do not favour its objectives. Moreover, the communist countries show little interest in its work, fearing that the spread of knowledge may weaken totalitarian regimes. Nevertheless, UNESCO is one of the most imaginative and hopeful of all international activities.

The specialized agencies, as well as the other bodies associated with the Economic and Social Council, are valuable features of world organization. They allow governments to work together on constructive and peaceful tasks. They bring peoples of similar interests together from all parts of the world. Meteorologists of many countries meet in the sessions of the WMO, and aviation specialists at ICAO meetings. Each agency has its own little parliament or other system of having conferences, and each has its own budget. Perhaps the best approach to effective international organization is by means of these agencies, each devoted to educating world opinion on a particular subject.

Delegates to the agencies we have so far mentioned are government officials, although there is some scope for the activities of private individuals, especially in the work of UNESCO and the ILO. But we should also notice the existence of a large number of international organizations that are non-governmental in nature. There are nearly a hundred of these organizations, most of them existing long before the U.N. was established, which have informal ties with the Economic and Social Council. Among these organizations are the International Chamber of Commerce, the Inter-Parliamentary Union, the Young Men's Christian Association, and a great many more. Thus the U.N. helps private individuals and organizations of many countries to carry on their activ-

ities. Such activities are among the best and surest roads to attaining a true world community.

4. Regional Security Pacts and Groupings

(a) Western Europe, the North Atlantic Area and NATO. Now that we have a general picture of the structure of the United Nations organization, we may well ask ourselves how successful it has been in assuring security to its members and in bringing about the peaceful settlement of international disputes. If we look at the second matter first, we can point to several substantial achievements. U.N. representatives arranged a truce between the Jews and Arabs in Palestine. The angry dispute between India and Pakistan over Kashmir was brought under negotiation by the U.N. The transforming of Indonesia from Dutch colonies to an independent state was greatly assisted by the U.N. In short, impartial U.N. officials have done much to halt fighting and bring disputing sides to the conference table.

When we turn to the first matter—whether the U.N. has safeguarded the security of its members—the answer is not so encouraging, although the U.N. has been far more effective in this

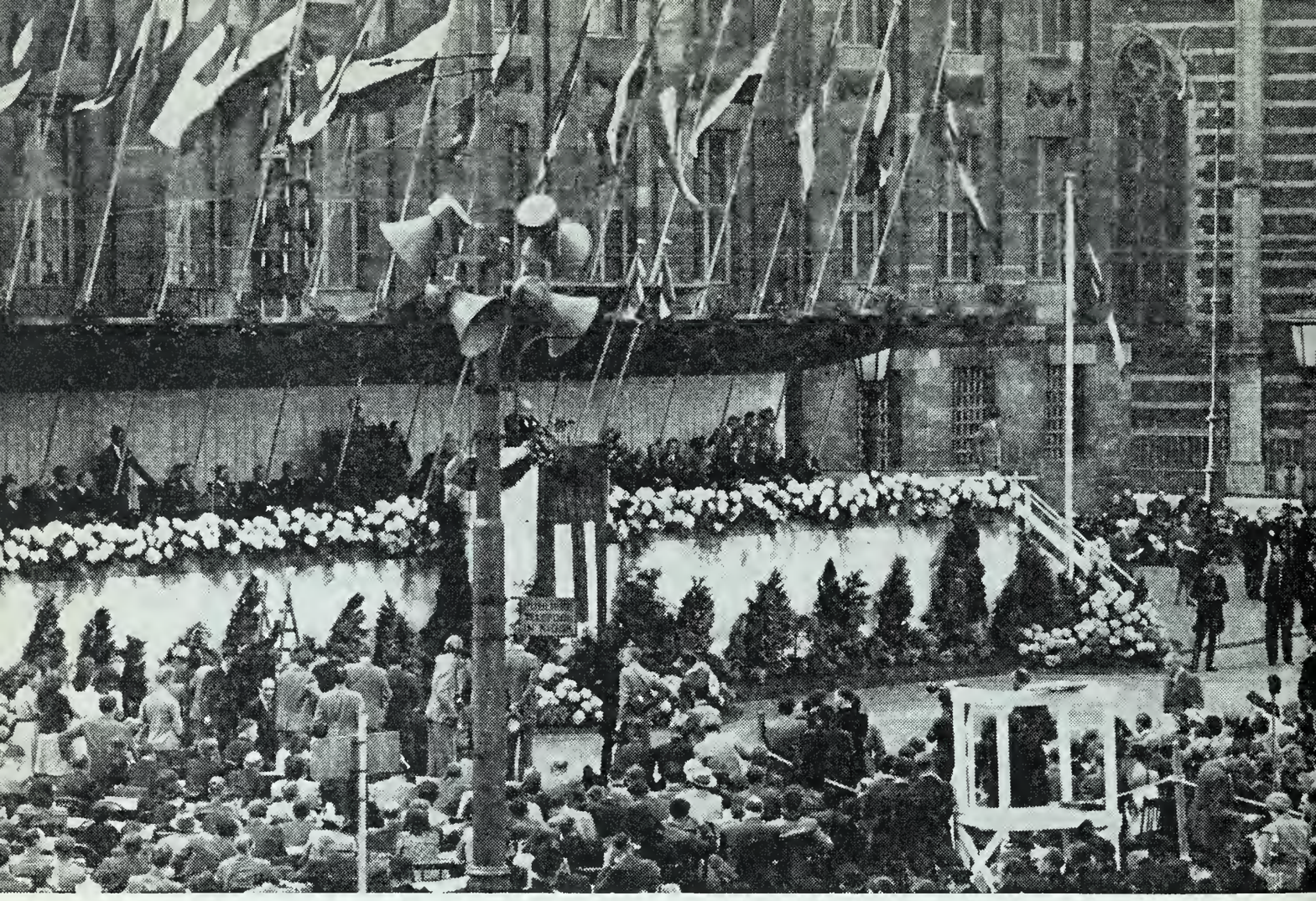


THE U.N. WORKS TO RESOLVE CONFLICTS IN THE WORLD

regard than the League ever was. It is probable that the U.N. by focussing world opinion on certain problems and areas, and by resort to discussion and negotiation, has on occasion prevented aggressive actions that might otherwise have taken place. Above all, the U.N. acted decisively in 1950 to oppose the armed attack on South Korea. This, indeed, was the first successful example of collective security in action in the world's history.

Nevertheless, it would not be true to say that the U.N. has been able to inspire a general sense of security among nations of the world in the years since 1945. It is important to realize that the entire U.N. structure was based on the assumption that the Great Powers would remain in agreement on all important questions. But the ink was hardly dry on the Charter in 1945 before differences began to arise between the Soviet Union on the one hand and the western powers (the United States, Great Britain and France) on the other. By 1948 the term 'cold war' was in common use to describe the dangerous character of these differences. A further complication was the victory of the communists in China. The new communist government controlled China, but the defeated government of Chiang Kai-Shek continued to represent China at the U.N. A further result of the differences between the communist and western powers was that there could be no agreement on the admission of new members to the U.N. Many important nations, notably Germany, Japan, Italy and Spain, thus have had to remain outside the world organization.

Above all there was the growing fear that the Soviet Union was bent on extending communist rule into western Europe. That region had emerged from the Second World War with its economic and military power both badly weakened. The divisions of Europe also made it difficult to resist communist pressure. Under these circumstances the countries of western Europe began to take measures to strengthen themselves and to work together to safeguard their security. Despite past wars and traditions of hostility, the western Europeans felt that they were united by their common civilization, which they must strive to protect. Under



Courtesy United Kingdom Information Office

SIR WINSTON CHURCHILL ADDRESSES A EUROPEAN UNITY MEETING IN AMSTERDAM

outside pressure the movement to bring European countries together thus began to gather force.

The first important step in this direction was taken in 1948 when Great Britain, France, Belgium, the Netherlands and Luxembourg signed a pact aimed at economic co-operation and collective defence. In the following year the Council of Europe was established, in which the above five countries were joined by some ten others in western Europe. At its headquarters in Strasbourg, France, representatives from the several governments met to discuss common problems. Although without real power, the Council of Europe has been a symbol of European unity.

The most effective work of linking up Europe has been carried forward on a less dramatic but more practical level. The main effort has been to secure economic co-operation. Agreements to lower or abolish tariffs and to reduce the currency problem in trading have been made among various European countries. The most far-reaching achievement was the European Coal and Steel

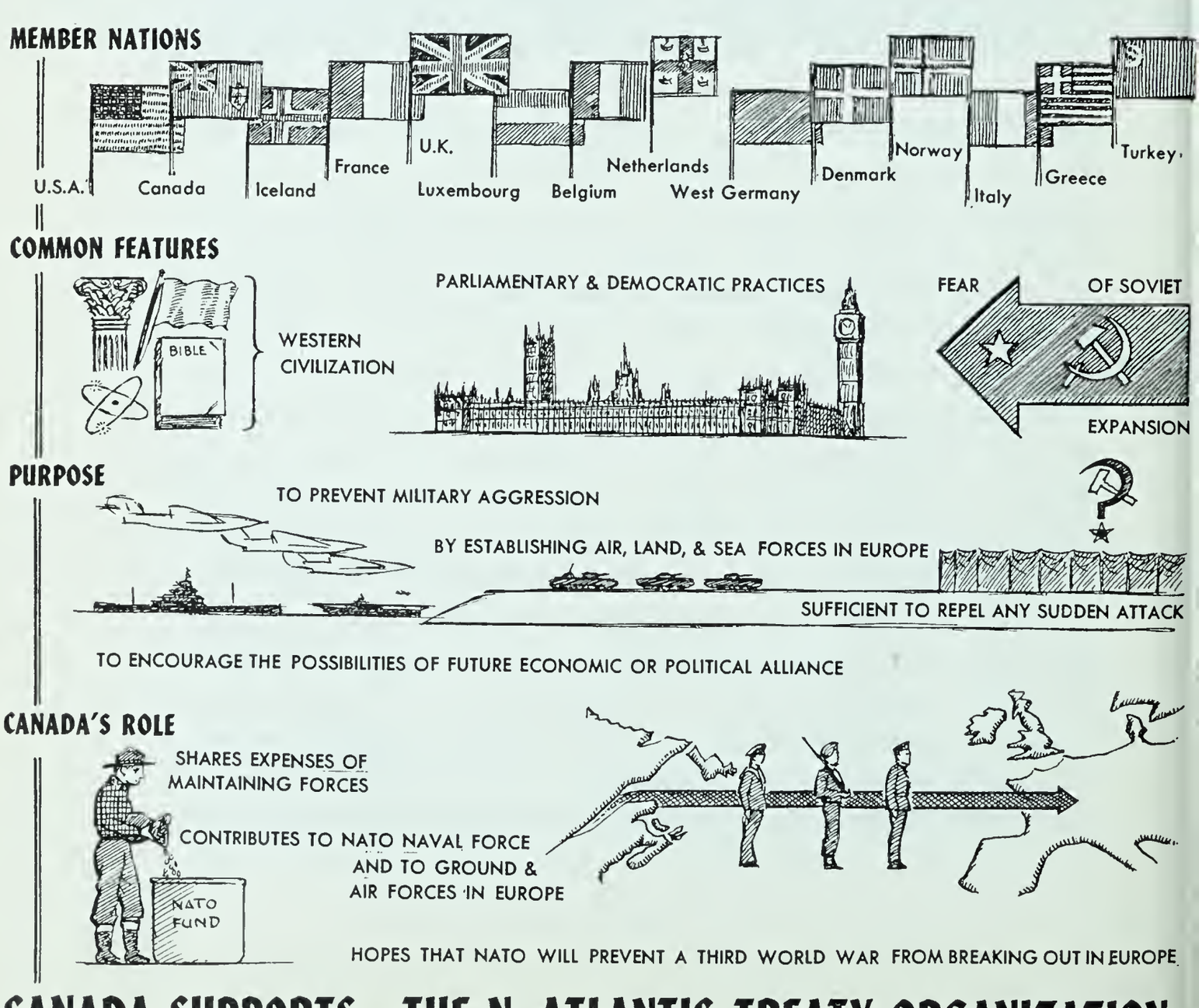
Community, under which the coal fields, iron ore deposits and steel-producing plants of France, West Germany, Italy, Belgium, the Netherlands and Luxembourg were treated as a unit, to be ruled by a single authority. These six countries agreed to create a single market for coal and steel by eliminating tariffs, quotas, licenses and all other barriers to trade in these products. Since Europeans were now co-operating in economic matters, it was hoped that they might also do so in a military way. In 1950 the European Defence Community (EDC) was proposed, by which a European army would be created, although the plan was opposed by some countries, especially France, which feared the revival of German strength.

Despite limitations and obstacles, Europeans were working together more closely than ever before. Nevertheless it soon became clear in the years after the end of the Second World War that the assistance of the United States and Canada would be needed if Europe were to recover and be able to balance the great power of the Soviet Union. The North American countries were ready to provide such assistance, because their own trade and economic life would benefit from a steady and prosperous western Europe, and because they regarded that area as their own first line of defence. The first step was the great Marshall Plan of economic aid in 1948, followed in 1949 by the North Atlantic Treaty Organization, or NATO.

We have mentioned NATO before, but we should examine it more closely in connection with this question of security. It is an alliance to provide security for a very important part of the free world, made between the United States and Canada on the one hand and twelve European countries, extending from Iceland to Turkey on the other. Each country in the alliance agrees to come to the aid of any other member that may be attacked. The United States and Canada also have sent armed forces to Europe as proof of their determination to honour their pledges. Many measures for military co-operation have been taken under NATO—a system of air fields built in western Europe, army manoeuvres held, and a

large headquarters staff set up. It was also hoped that economic co-operation would result, although the hopes in this direction have so far not been realized.

In short, NATO is a 'regional security pact', by which friendly nations in one region, with similar military interests and with much in common in their governing systems, have agreed to form a defensive alliance to protect themselves against possible aggression. What connection does NATO have with the U.N.? In 1945 it was hoped that such pacts would be unnecessary, since the common action of the Great Powers, along with the other nations in the U.N., was expected to provide security for all. This hope was blasted, as we have seen. But is then NATO opposed to the ideas of the United Nations? By no means, since one clause (Number 51) of the U.N. Charter allows such regional pacts of a defensive



nature. Countries like Canada, which are members of the U.N., continue to be loyal supporters of the world organization. They are simply trying to achieve the purposes of the U.N. within the particular region of the North Atlantic countries. All the plans made at the military headquarters of NATO are of a purely defensive nature.

The immediate purpose of NATO was to provide military security to its members, and this purpose was achieved as substantial ground, air and naval forces were built up. But the possibilities of NATO go far beyond the military field. It is a means by which the countries of the North Atlantic and Mediterranean areas can consult constantly on a wide variety of questions. It is too early to say whether NATO may lead to any sort of union among these, or some of these, nations, but we can say that NATO opens up the possibility of such a union.

In the first part of this unit, some of the obstacles to world government were noted. Perhaps NATO presents a less ambitious but more effective way of subordinating separate nationalisms to a common purpose. The countries of NATO, with one or two exceptions, share many interests: considerable similarity in systems of government, the traditions of western civilization, and much the same military problems. Efforts to secure continuous international co-operation will be most effective among nations that have as much in common as do the NATO countries.

NATO is of immense significance to Canada. The two areas of greatest importance to Canada's foreign policy have always been Great Britain and western Europe on the one hand, and the United States on the other. Whenever the policies of governments in these two areas have diverged, Canada has been placed in difficulties. NATO greatly reduces the possibility of serious differences of policy, and thus increases Canada's security. And so this country has been willing to make commitments to NATO that have never been known before in our peacetime history, since we now have Canadian soldiers and airmen stationed in Europe, and Canadian ships have joined the NATO naval forces.

(b) Other Regional Groupings. NATO is the most extensive and elaborate of all such regional pacts, but it is not the only one. There has been much discussion of a similar alliance in the Pacific Ocean area, and some progress in this direction has been made. In 1951, after a peace treaty was signed with Japan, the United States entered into a number of defensive alliances with Pacific countries. In order to calm fears of a revival of Japan's powers, the United States signed a treaty with Australia and New Zealand, familiarly known as ANZUS. This pact calls for mutual assistance and co-operation on matters of common interest. The United States also signed such pacts with Japan, the Philippines, and later with the Republic of Korea. All such pacts fit in with the terms of the United Nations Charter, since they are of a defensive nature.

So far, however, no general alliance of countries with interests in the Pacific Ocean area has been made. Such countries are much more widely separated than are those of the North Atlantic region, their traditions in politics and civilization are more divergent, and their views on military policy have much less in common. With all these and other difficulties we cannot expect common action in the Pacific to equal that which we find in the North Atlantic. Nevertheless we may expect some broadening and deepening of co-operative measures in the coming years. As this happens, we may also expect that Canada, with its long frontage on the Pacific Ocean, will have a share in such measures. Until recent years Canadian interest in the Far East was relatively minor; that interest has grown greatly since 1941, and particularly since the outbreak of the Korean war in 1950.



NATIONS OF THE ARAB LEAGUE

The North Atlantic and the Pacific are not the only areas where regional groupings have emerged. The Arab states to the east and south of the Mediterranean consult with one another, and try to pursue common policies. They are drawn together by the bond of the

Mohammedan religion and by their mutual hostility to the new state of Israel. The Arab League, as this group of states is called, avoids close ties with either the western democratic countries or the communist countries of eastern Europe. Sometimes the Arab League acts in common with certain Asiatic nations, especially India, Pakistan and Indonesia. This 'Asian-Arab Bloc' has occasionally been evident in the voting at the United Nations General Assembly. It is far from being a formal alliance; these nations simply act together on particular questions, to distinguish themselves from both the western democratic and eastern communist groupings.

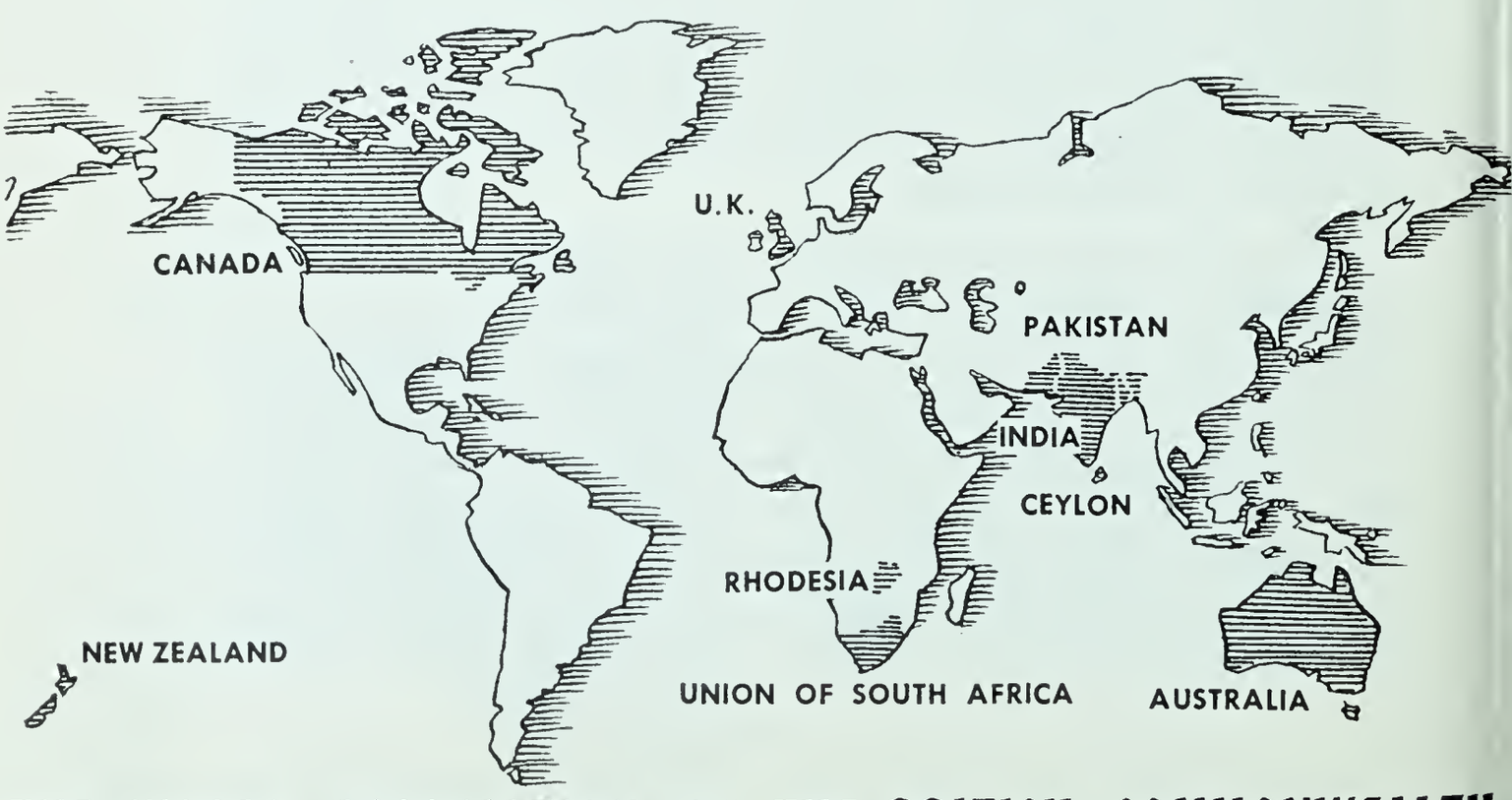
Another regional grouping is that made up of the communist world. At its centre is the mighty Soviet Union, and in close alliance with it is communist China. Various smaller countries, on the borders of these Great Powers, of course are dominated by them, ranging from Poland and East Germany to Bulgaria in eastern Europe, and including North Korea and parts of Indo-China in Asia. This particular regional grouping cannot be squared with the spirit of the United Nations. Free elections are never allowed in any of the communist countries, and the small ones are exploited for the benefit of the Soviet Union and China. This grouping is not defensive in nature; on the contrary, it has engaged in armed aggression in Korea and Indo-China, and has conspired to extend its power into other countries, as it succeeded in doing in Czechoslovakia in 1948. In fact, the existence of this Communist grouping forced the setting up of the North Atlantic and Pacific pacts noted earlier.

Still another regional grouping, of a very different kind, is the Organization of American States. This consists of all the independent states of the western hemisphere, except Canada. That is, its members are the United States and the Latin American republics. (Perhaps you will remember, from *Canada and the Americas,* the reasons why Canada does not belong to this organization.) The origins of this grouping go back to about 1890, when the United States government began to encourage the Pan-American

movement, with the purpose of limiting European interference in the western hemisphere. For a long time this movement amounted to very little. The United States and Latin America had little in common in language or culture. Moreover, the southern countries were suspicious of the 'Yankee Colossus of the North' in the years after 1900, when the United States pursued imperialist policies in the Central American region.

In the 1930's, however, the situation changed when the United States proclaimed the "Good Neighbour" policy, and made clear that it would no longer intervene in Latin American countries. With the coming of the Second World War, the American states drew closer together in order to provide for the security of the western hemisphere. In 1945 it was declared that an attack against one American state would be regarded as an attack against all the others that signed the declaration. This declaration was made into a formal treaty in 1947, and in 1948 the Organization of American States was set up as a regional agency in line with the purposes of the United Nations. Because of its size and wealth the United States remains the leading power in this organization, but it does not try to dominate it.

Of the regional groupings which we have here reviewed, Canada is associated only with the North Atlantic Treaty Organization.



THE WORLD ASSOCIATION OF THE BRITISH COMMONWEALTH

One other association of nations should, however, be mentioned, in which Canada plays an important part. This is of course the British Commonwealth of Nations. The Commonwealth is not a regional grouping, since it is spread out over many areas of the globe. It is not a pact, because its members are not bound by any formal alliance. It does not pursue a common foreign policy. India, for instance, does not follow the same policy towards the Soviet Union as do Great Britain and Canada. Some Commonwealth members recognize communist China; some do not.

But when all this is said, it remains true that the members of the Commonwealth are united by vital ties of common interest and friendship. They share the tradition of parliamentary government. By their friendship they help to prevent regional groupings from hardening into tightly closed units. Great Britain represents a European point of view. Australia and New Zealand bring forward the problems of the South Pacific. India voices the problem of Asia's free nations. The views of the Arab League may receive a hearing through Pakistan. And Canada expresses the outlook of the western hemisphere.

Thus the Commonwealth is a major factor in harmonizing differences between one region and another. It is, indeed, an international organization in itself. An example of its functioning is in the Colombo Plan, by which its more advanced members help to develop the nations of southeast Asia, both those in and those outside the Commonwealth. With its roots deep in history, the Commonwealth is a working example of partnership and co-operation. The existence of the Commonwealth is an important bulwark of the United Nations. All its members belong to the U.N. and work to advance its purposes.

5. Prospects for World Co-operation

What has been accomplished in the field of international organization? World government is still far in the

future. The national sovereign state remains the basic unit in all continents. Canada, for instance, continues to have her own currency, her own armed services with distinctive uniforms, and her own tariffs. What is true of Canada is true of other countries.

On the other hand, there is now more co-operation and common action among sovereign states than ever before. First and foremost, this co-operation takes place in the many organs and agencies of the United Nations Organization described in this unit. On another level there are the various regional associations we have mentioned. The Canadian government has taken a worthy part in these efforts at common action.

The next great forward movement in world co-operation will be to place limitations upon national sovereignty. This will mean that nations will agree to surrender control over certain areas of their lives to some wider authority, a surrender which most countries are most reluctant to make. Yet some progress is being made. The NATO countries have placed units of their armed forces under a Supreme Commander. Most striking of all had been the European Coal and Steel Community, mentioned earlier, by which a High Authority makes economic decisions for six countries. There should be several extensions of this idea in other areas and continents before we can begin to talk seriously of world government. This goal will be achieved only by hard work and close bargaining, and only when all countries clearly see its benefits.

In the meantime we should give serious attention to the many non-political activities of the United Nations, which bring the nations together on constructive projects where national pride is not involved. Also we should keep in mind the wide variety of private associations of an international nature which bring people of similar interests together from all parts of the world. These non-political and private organizations are creating the wider understanding on which a sense of world community must be based, and we can hope to see them still further developed.

Learn by Doing

1. Discuss the advantages of world government and the difficulties of achieving it. (1, a)
2. Prepare a chart showing the organization of the League of Nations. (1, b)
3. Write a brief speech, such as Woodrow Wilson might have given, outlining the values that a League of Nations would have. (1, b)
4. Have the class discuss the practical effects that the carrying out of the objectives of the United Nations, as expressed on p. 412 ff., would have on the behaviour of individuals and nations. (2, a)
5. Prepare a scroll listing the main aims of the United Nations and put it on display in the classroom. (2, a)
6. Collect clippings from newspapers for a period of two weeks which refer to the United Nations or its sub-agencies. (2, a and b)
7. Have committees report on the organization and function of each of the following: (a) The Secretariat; (b) The International Court of Justice; (c) The Trusteeship Council; (d) The Economic and Social Council.
8. Form committees to collect information on the achievements of the following organizations: (a) UNICEF; (b) ICAO; (c) FAO; (d) WHO; (e) UNESCO. (3)
9. Prepare a newspaper article outlining the purposes of NATO. (4)
10. Discuss the benefits to Canada of belonging to the Commonwealth of Nations. (4)

Facts to Know

1. List the factors or agencies which tend to unite the people of the world. (1, a)
2. Why is force not likely to achieve world unity? (1, b)
3. (a) What was the purpose of the Hague Tribunal established in 1907?
   (b) Why did it fail? (1, b)
4. What were some of the reasons for the failure of the League of Nations? (1, b)
5. Describe the General Assembly of the United Nations and the way it functions. (2, a)

6. (a) How is the Security Council organized?
   (b) Why has it not functioned very successfully?
   (c) What are some of its main functions? (2, a)
7. Compare Canada's role in the United Nations with her role in the League of Nations. (2, b)
8. What are some of the main values of the specialized agencies of the United Nations? (3)
9. List some of the International Agencies which operated before the United Nations was formed.
10. How successful has the United Nations been in settling disputes? (4)
11. Explain the meaning of the term 'Cold War'. (4)
12. Describe the purpose of the following organizations established in Western Europe: (a) The Council of Europe; (b) The European Defence Community. (4)
13. In what ways has Canada participated in NATO? (4)
14. (a) List some of the main countries in: (i) The Arab League; (ii) The communist bloc. (4)
    (b) In what ways is the communist grouping not in keeping with the spirit of the United Nations? (4)
15. State some hopeful signs where governments have been willing to give up their sovereignty to work with other countries. (5)

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UNIT TWELVE

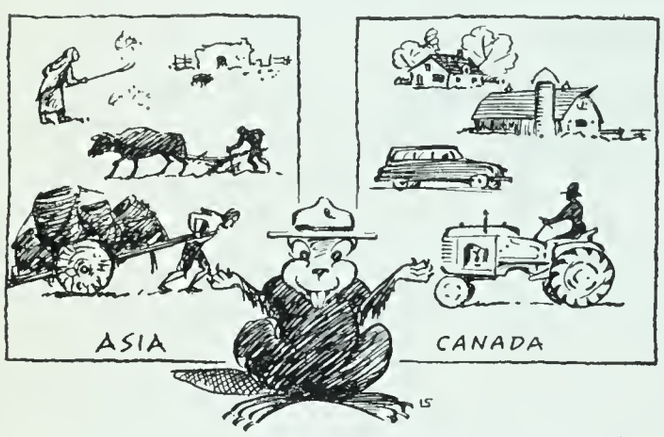
WORLD PROBLEMS OF TODAY

1. *The Problems of Underdeveloped Areas*
2. *Racial and National Tensions*
3. *The Problem of Opposing Ideologies*
4. *Man Himself and World Affairs*

Throughout this book we have been trying to understand something of the world we live in, and of Canada's relation to it. We have examined the globe we live on, and the ways in which geography has shaped the life of man. We have looked at the main countries and peoples of the earth, watched the rise of their civilizations, and noted their problems today. We have recalled some important features of our own country, and traced its connections with the world as a whole. Finally, we have looked at the problem of international organization, both as regards trade and economic life and with respect to the vital question of security and world government.

In this last unit, then, our purpose is to review some of the main world questions, with particular attention to the tensions

and anxieties that now threaten the peace and prosperity of the world. It is important that we have a sound understanding of these matters since it is all too easy for Canadians to overlook them. To be sure, we have our own problems at home that at times seem to be very serious, and which we should try to solve. At the same time we must always remember that we are far more fortunate than the great majority of peoples on this earth. We have very nearly the world's highest standard of living. This means that most of us have enough to eat. (Indeed, 'overweight' is said to be one of our serious problems!) Most of us have decent housing, adequate clothes, and leisure for recreation. We live at peace with our neighbours, both on this continent and elsewhere in the world, free of fears and frustrations. We must not take these things for granted, for they are not true of most parts of the world. Above all, we must not think that our situation is favourable because we are superior to other peoples, or because we are more intelligent or work harder. The fact is that we are luckier than most.



"THE TRUTH IS, WE ARE PRETTY LUCKY."

Some of the most serious world problems may seem remote to Canadians, but that does not mean that they can be ignored. Events and conditions in seemingly far-off places can have immediate effects on us. We have seen how Canada is associated with other parts of the world through alliances, historical ties, trade, international and cultural associations, and in many other ways. A famine in India, a racial conflict in South Africa, a boundary dispute in Europe, or an oil discovery in South America are matters of direct concern to Canadians. On the other hand, the decisions that we make at home can affect other peoples in far-off lands. We should never forget that the countries of the world are interdependent, and the problems of one country are the problems of all.

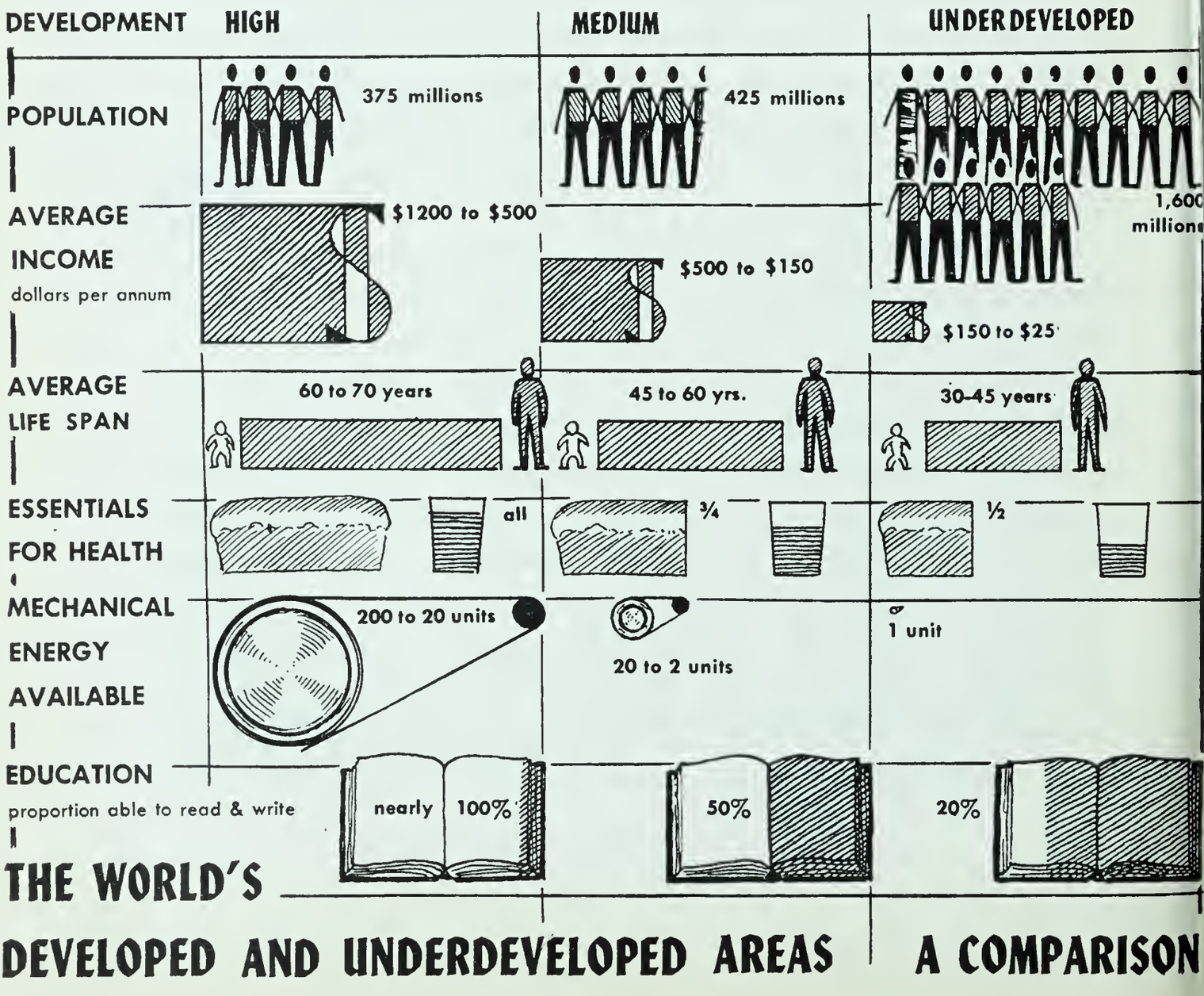
1. The Problems of Underdeveloped Areas

(a) Poverty and Overcrowding. One great problem, that of underdeveloped or 'backward' areas, needs special attention here. What do we mean by this term? Our first reaction might be to say that the term is meaningless, because it could apply to almost any country. Canada, for instance, might be thought of as underdeveloped, since she has vast natural resources that have barely been tapped. The term, however, has been given a particular meaning, which is this: an underdeveloped country is one in which there is continuous and general poverty, and in which old-fashioned and inefficient methods of production are used. Such a country may have rich natural resources, but for one reason or another, these do not provide a decent standard of living for the population. Such a country is also likely to have undemocratic political and social institutions, for democracy never thrives where there is widespread hunger. On the other hand, a country of this sort may advance beyond the underdeveloped stage, as Japan did most rapidly before 1914, and still not become democratic. Economic advance does not necessarily bring democracy, but democracy cannot come without it.

We can divide the countries of the world into three broad classifications, highly developed, intermediate, and underdeveloped, according to standard of living, methods of production, and political and social organization. In the first classification are Britain, France and Germany and some other countries of western Europe, Canada and the United States, and Australia and New Zealand. These countries have a combined population of about 375,000,000. The intermediate countries stretch from eastern and southern Europe across the Soviet Union to Japan, and also include some countries in Central and South America—like Argentina and Chile and the Union of South Africa. The population of these countries numbers about 425,000,000. All the rest of the world is made up of underdeveloped areas or countries. They comprise all of Asia,

south of the Soviet Union and Japan, all of Africa, except its southern tip, and most of Central and South America. These countries have a total population of about 1,600,000,000, that is, about two-thirds of the world's population. The highly developed countries, of which Canada is one, thus contain less than one-sixth of the people of the globe. Canada's standard of living is the exception, not the rule, as far as the rest of the world is concerned.

Let us see how our way of life contrasts with that in 'backward' lands of the world. The average income per person in Canada is more than $1,000 per year. In the underdeveloped countries it is less than $150, and in some countries not much above $25. Life expectancy in these countries is about half what it is in Canada. They have less than one-sixth, in some instances less than one-hundredth, as many doctors in proportion to population as we have. They get about half as much food as we do, and what



THE WORLD'S DEVELOPED AND UNDERDEVELOPED AREAS A COMPARISON

they get is much less nutritious. Milk and meat are seldom found in the diets of these countries. Education is usually confined to a small minority, with only about one person in four or five able to read and write, while education is available to everyone in Canada. But the greatest contrast of all is in the use of non-human forms of energy, such as electricity, steam and gasoline engines. Per person, we use from twenty to two hundred times as much of this kind of energy as do the people in underdeveloped countries.

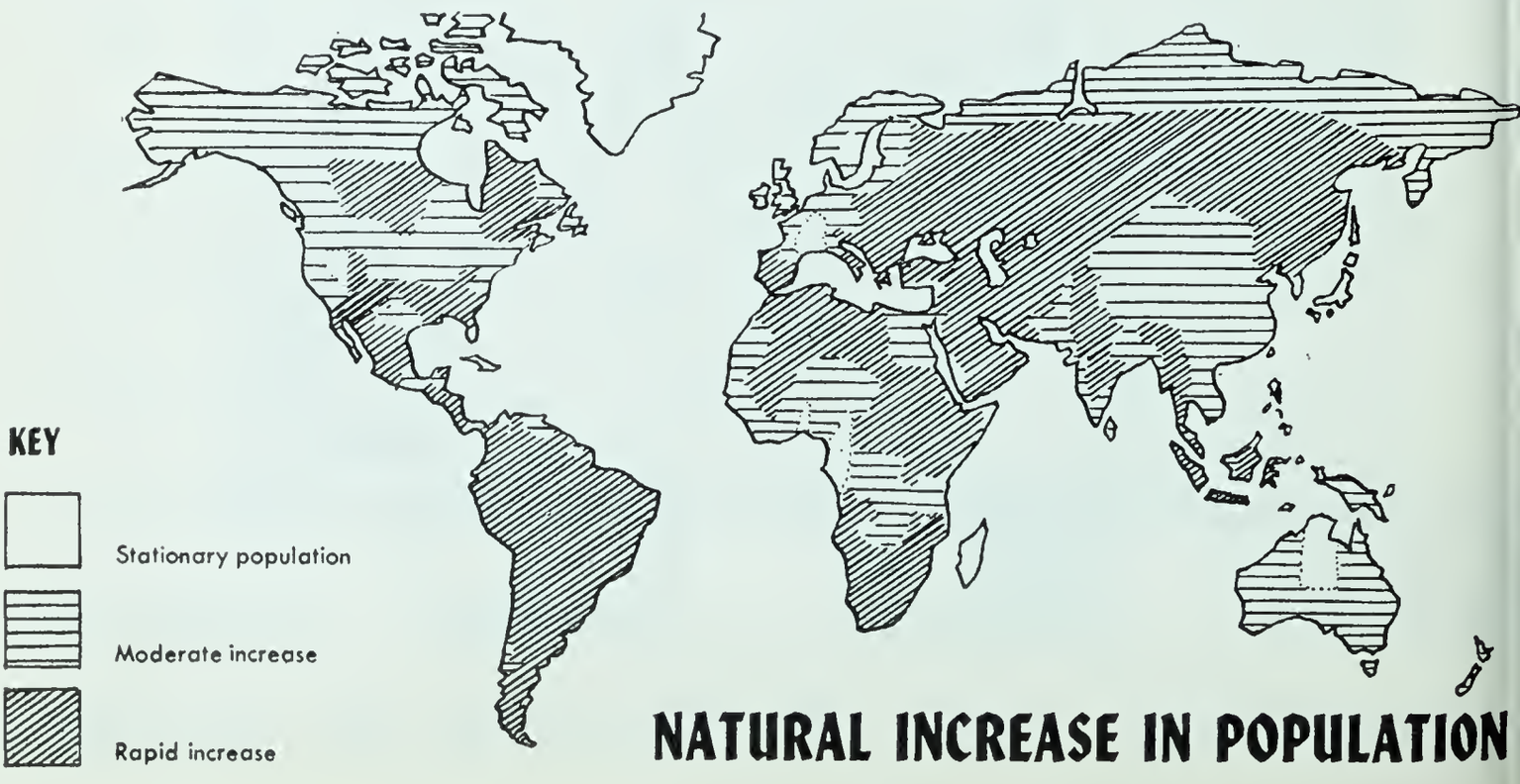
We can see the contrast another way by thinking of Canada and the United States together, and comparing them with the other countries of the world. These two North American countries contain about six per cent of the world's population, but they use about fifty per cent of the world's output of raw materials, and make about half of the world's output of manufactured products, most of which they use themselves. The other ninety-four per cent of the world's people get along on half the world's wealth. The two-thirds of the people living in the underdeveloped countries get only a small fraction of this remaining half of the world's wealth. Moreover, the contrast in standards of living between these people and ourselves is becoming greater each year, instead of becoming less.

There is, of course, nothing new in this situation. The countries of western Europe and their overseas extensions have always enjoyed a higher standard of living than have other parts of the world. For many centuries this fact caused little comment. The peoples of underdeveloped countries knew little of the outside world, and believed that poverty and disease were inevitable. They even made a virtue of their poverty, in many instances, by claiming that it was wrong to seek material things. These attitudes are now disappearing. Poverty-stricken peoples now know more of the outside world, and believe that their lot can and should be improved. Many of them believe that they have been kept down by the rich countries, that their resources have been taken by imperialist powers, while their peoples have been treated

as inferiors. They are suspicious and resentful of western countries. They are determined to gain control of their own destinies and to end foreign control. They are conscious of their misery, and increasingly discontented.

Now that we have sketched in the contrast between their way of life and ours, and how they feel about it, let us look more closely at some of the problems of underdeveloped countries. These problems are economic on the one hand and political and social on the other. They concern population, land, industrialization, government and social organization. There are many other problems, but these are among the most important.

The distribution of population over the earth's surface is very uneven, as we all know. Some large countries, like Canada, with 3.6 persons per square mile, and Australia, with 2.7 persons per square mile, appear to be nearly empty, while small countries, like Belgium, with 716.7 persons per square mile, are densely populated. There is no necessary connection between density of population and prosperity or poverty. Canada, Australia and Belgium are all among the highly developed, relatively prosperous countries. But in order to be prosperous, a densely populated country needs certain advantages: industry, fertile land, trading opportunities, a skilled population, and a just and efficient system of government and society. If a densely populated country lacks some



NATURAL INCREASE IN POPULATION

or all of these advantages, its people are doomed to poverty and misery.

The population picture in the underdeveloped countries is dangerous, and possibly disastrous. It may well become the most important of all world problems before another generation has elapsed. The population of the world has doubled in the last century, and at the present rate will double again in less than another century. At the same time the amount of good farming land is becoming less each year, as soil is exhausted. More mouths to feed each year, less land from which to feed them. The rate of population growth is much higher in the underdeveloped countries than in the highly developed ones. This fact is shown by the figures on annual births per thousand inhabitants. These are, for Canada, 26.6; Great Britain, 16.1; Ceylon, 40.3; China 40.7; and Mexico, 45.7. Thus the problem is rapidly getting worse in these last three countries, and many more like them.

The western countries are partly responsible for this situation. They have introduced new medical and public health methods that have greatly decreased the death rate, particularly the rate of infant and child mortality. Such measures were taken with the best humanitarian aims, but the result has been a decrease in death rates without a corresponding decrease in birth rates. Overcrowding becomes steadily worse, while there are no places to emigrate. The United States, Canada, and some other relatively new countries used to admit the poor of Europe, but they have never welcomed, and do not now admit, the poor of Asia or Africa.

In short, overcrowding may have tragic consequences. The people in underdeveloped countries now have high hopes of a better life. But new methods of production and other changes may barely keep pace with the increasing population, or not keep pace at all. When hopes are dashed, anger and aggressive feelings will increase. It has been said that, in the absence of a declining birth rate or emigration, excess population may be checked in only three ways: by famine, disease or war. The conscience of the world will prevent a large-scale or prolonged famine in any country, since

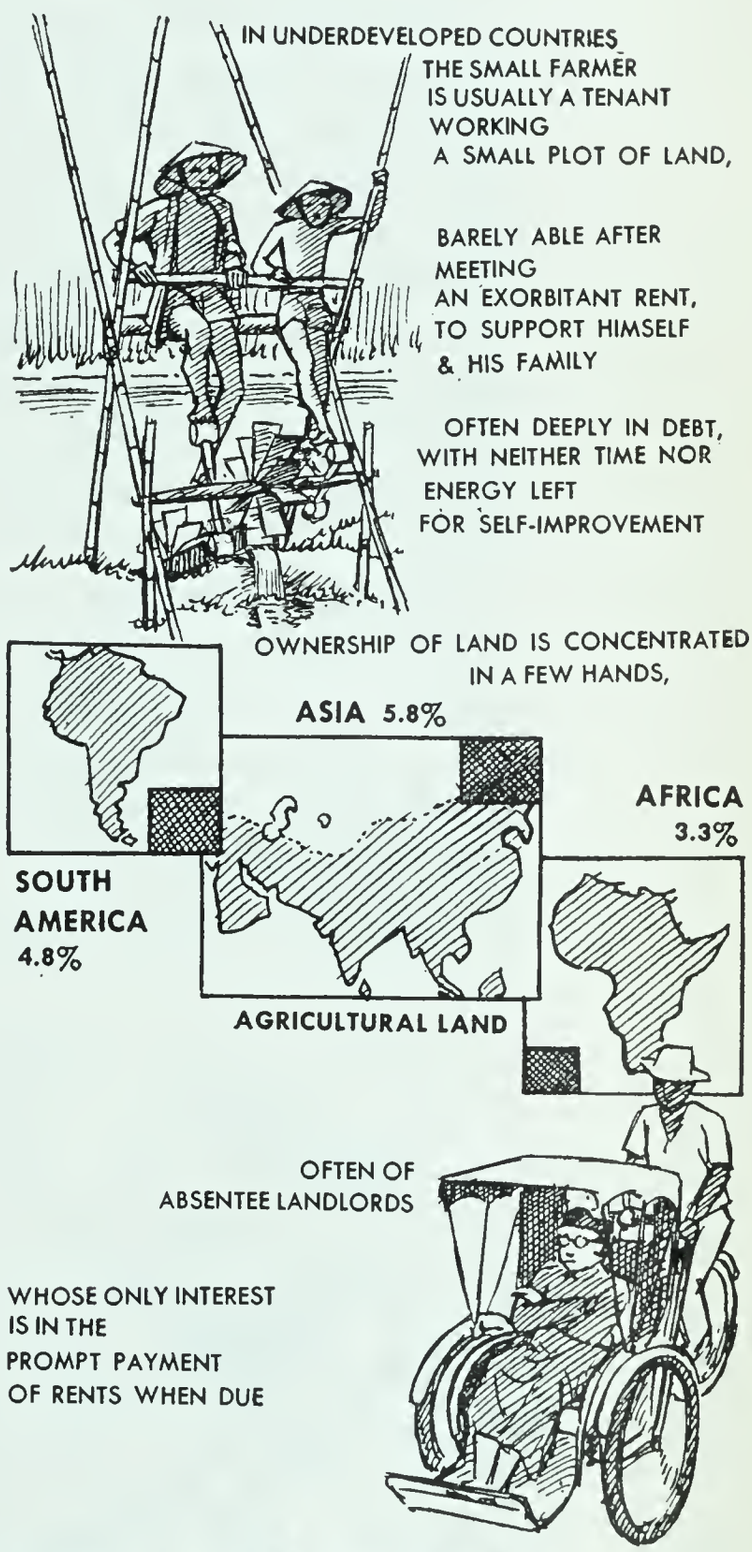
food will be rushed to check it. Disease is kept under control by modern medical science, which has diminished the amount of sickness in many areas. People may now be kept alive even when living conditions are terribly low. This leaves the possibility of violent political explosions, including war, unless people become so apathetic from hunger that they have no energy to complain. It is easy then, to see why the population problem is receiving the most earnest attention from world leaders.

(b) Questions of Land, Industry and Political Development. The next great issue in the underdeveloped countries is the land question. From three-quarters to four-fifths of the people in these countries are engaged in some kind of farming. What kind of living they can get from the land is all-important to these people. And yet they are faced with terrible obstacles. The supply of good land is limited. In Europe 37 per cent of the land is suitable for agriculture. Even in North America, despite the frozen north, the mountains and the desert, 10.4 per cent of the land has agricultural uses. But the figure for South America is only 4.8 per cent, for Asia 5.8 per cent, and for Africa 3.3 per cent. In addition, as we all know, farming methods in these last three continents are often primitive and wasteful.

These facts alone would cause a land problem, but there are others that make it much worse. In many areas land ownership is concentrated in a few hands. The small farmer does not own the land he works, he does not get a full return for his work because he has to pay high rents, and thus he has little desire to work hard or use better methods. The amount of land he has to work is often so small that modern methods cannot be used. Rents may be so high that the farmer and his children after him are permanently in debt. The landlord may be an absentee and live elsewhere, which means that he does not hear complaints and may have no interest in the farmer or his problems, as long as he gets his rent on time. Poor roads, unfair taxation, lack of education and skill, grasping merchants who secure most of the farmer's profits, and

lack of markets are other burdens. Farmers in our own land have sometimes suffered from these evils, but never on the scale to be found in the underdeveloped countries.

The result of all this has been a great cry for 'agrarian reform'. The peoples of all underdeveloped countries have been attracted by this slogan. It means that the land would be transferred from the wealthy landlords to the small farmers, although some urge that this be done by force, while others prefer a more gradual programme that would compensate the landlords for their loss. This would not solve all problems by any means, but the feudal or near-feudal condition in many of these countries, whereby powerful landlords control so much, is a great barrier to progress. On this urgent question, a great contest is going on between the western democratic countries, led by the United States, and the communist countries, led by the Soviet Union. Both urge and promise land reform. The communist countries have one seeming advantage. They are prepared to use force to remove landlords, though as a result the state, not the farmer, really gains control. And so sooner or later, the communists make life about as miserable for the farmer



SOME LAND PROBLEMS IN UNDERDEVELOPED AREAS

as it was under the old system. The western countries move more slowly, but more surely and in better faith. They have the world's best record in land policy, and have much to offer on this question.

Industrialization is another great concern of the underdeveloped countries. Most of these countries are predominantly agricultural, but they produce little food for export. As we have seen, usually they cannot feed themselves adequately. Their exports are usually raw materials, such as tin, rubber, oil, or specialized products such as fruit and coffee. The foreign demand for these products is very uncertain, high in some years, low in others. Moreover, the profits from these exports seldom improve the standard of living of the country in question: they go partly to foreign-owned companies and partly to a small number of the local people who are already rich. Thus neither agriculture nor the export of raw materials usually bring prosperity to the underdeveloped lands.

Under these circumstances the demand for industrialization has arisen. It is well known that all highly developed countries have a considerable amount of industry, while the underdeveloped countries have little or none. It also appears that a country is much more self-sufficient when it can manufacture some or many of its own products. There is a good deal of natural pride in this matter.



THE WORLD'S AGRICULTURAL & INDUSTRIAL AREAS

People in the underdeveloped countries feel that they are regarded as inferior by the West. If they can build and operate large and complicated factories they will have shown they have abilities and skills for which they are not now given credit. Finally, they see industrialization as the way out of their present poverty. Industry brings many new jobs and a higher standard of living.

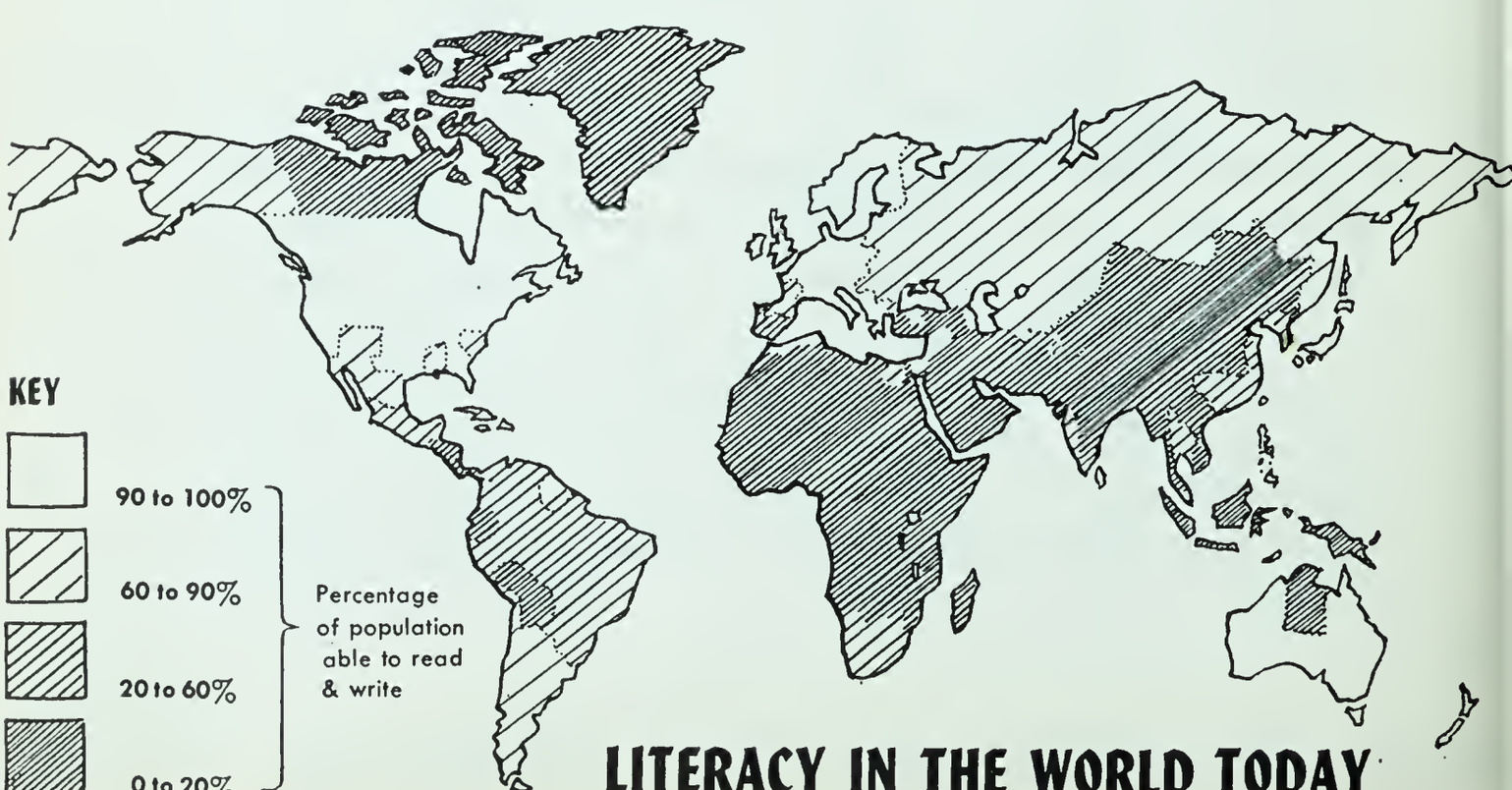
How can industrialization be achieved in these countries? One way is to use some of the profits from the export of raw materials in order to aid in the building of factories and other industrial plants. Another way is to encourage foreign investors and governments to lend or grant money for this purpose. These steps are not easily taken. The tight grip on profits, both local and foreign, is hard to break. There is suspicion of outside investors and foreign aid. Sometimes the wrong kinds of factories are built, which do not help the local economy. Yet the advanced countries are generally willing to help, because an improved standard of living greatly stimulates their trade too. A good example is to compare the relations of Canada and Mexico with the United States. Although Mexico has nearly twice the population of Canada, the United States does far more trading with its northern than with its southern neighbour. Canada's industrialization and consequent high standard of living is a large part of the answer. Most of the underdeveloped countries will probably never reach Canada's rate of industrialization, but improvement in this direction will help them and the world as a whole.

The economic problems we have discussed are very important, but there are political and social questions that are equally serious. Suppose new economic methods are introduced, with little or no change in the form of government or society. The result may not be an improvement in the lot of the people. The masses may still be downtrodden. New economic methods may be used for the profit of the few, or for aggressive purposes. This is what happened in Japan when that country was industrialized. In short, the underdeveloped countries need political and social change as

much as they need economic change. One without the other leads to a very unbalanced situation.

The underdeveloped countries will need to improve the efficiency of their administration and government, including such measures as better tax laws. They will need to broaden their educational system, in order that the masses of the people can receive training, especially of a vocational and technical nature. They will need to stimulate individuals and groups to take a greater interest in public questions than is now the case. They will need to abolish out-of-date customs, such as the land-owning arrangements mentioned above. But all this does not mean that the western countries should try to impose their ideas of parliamentary government, free enterprise, capitalism, democratic socialism, or their various social customs on the underdeveloped countries. What works well in one setting may be quite unsuited to another. The great need is to work in the direction of strengthening human dignity and freedom. Each country will have its own ways of achieving these goals.

Some people think that the underdeveloped countries have low living standards because their inhabitants are naturally inferior to the people of the more prosperous countries. There is no scientific evidence to support this view. Moreover, the evidence of history



LITERACY IN THE WORLD TODAY

is against it, since people in these countries have frequently made important contributions to human progress and thought. The truth is that certain countries in the temperate zone have had great advantages in the race for industrial power, and have been more successful in building sound political and social systems. The underdeveloped countries can catch up, at least some of the way, if they try hard and if they receive help and encouragement. No one knows for certain whether the people in these countries are willing to face the great changes in politics, society, even in religion and family life, that are necessary to improve their lot in life. What we do know is that they will rightfully insist on making changes in their own ways. Patience and goodwill are necessary on all sides. The great thing is to encourage voluntary co-operation, both in the underdeveloped countries, and between them and ourselves.

To sum up, the underdeveloped countries not only need improved methods of production, but they also need to develop in the direction of democracy. This cannot be done by writing a new constitution, giving everybody the vote, and letting it go at that. Improved health is essential. Where people are diseased or underfed, they are apathetic or angry. They will not act in co-operative or constructive ways. More and better education is essential. Where people are illiterate and unskilled, they cannot be informed and useful citizens. Economic independence is essential, in order that the masses of the people may own their own land, carry on small businesses, and feel that they have a stake in the community. Power must be decentralized, to prevent the same small group of people from controlling the government, business life, the systems of education, the police, the newspapers and so on. Voluntary associations, such as labour unions, business men's associations, churches, service clubs, and many others, are essential underpinnings of democracy. They rarely exist in the underdeveloped countries, and are badly needed. The outlook for these countries is hopeful, if all these problems are attacked in an informed and constructive spirit.

2. Racial and National Tensions

(a) The Problems of Race. One of the world's most serious problems is the existence of race prejudice and discrimination. People of one colour tend to be suspicious of people of another colour, and to regard them as different and strange—although we have seen there are no grounds for this. It is doubtful that we are born with this feeling, at least in any intense form; we acquire it as we grow up. This feeling has now become a serious barrier to effective co-operation among the people of the world. Yet recent experience has shown that it may be broken down when there is a will to do so. Friendly and intimate association among people of different colours and races does take place, but it must be broadened to a much greater extent.

The most serious aspect of the racial question is the attitude of the white man towards the black, brown and yellow man. This attitude is generally one of superiority. In North America we have pushed back and humbled the Indian, sometime with ruthlessness and violence. The only coloured people who came to this continent in any numbers were admitted as slaves; after slavery ended, the Negro was generally treated as a second-class citizen, especially in the United States. Recently his lot has begun to improve, but he is still subjected to much discrimination. He is kept



RACIAL TENSION: TROUBLE SPOTS IN THE WORLD TODAY

off golf courses, denied admission to the best hotels, and prevented from holding many kinds of jobs, in some places in Canada as well as in the United States. Both these North American countries have also arranged their immigration laws to deny admission to coloured peoples, except in token numbers.

The situation has been no better on other continents. The white man came to Africa and parts of Asia as a ruler. With his superior military force and technical knowledge, he was able to subject the native populations. Often he helped the natives in various ways, providing some education and medical care, but usually there was a paternal attitude that was bitterly resented. The coloured man was not admitted to the white man's clubs or to social gatherings in a spirit of equality. For many years this situation has endured, because the white man was strong enough to make it endure. But that day is now over, and the coloured man is demanding equal treatment. A Pakistani has said that of all the freedoms the Asians want, the most important is 'freedom from contempt'. Other coloured peoples would echo this sentiment.

Why has the situation changed? One reason is that the attitudes of white peoples themselves have changed. Feelings of superiority are giving place to a sense of brotherhood and common humanity. The consciences of most white people will no longer allow them to ride roughshod over other races. On the other hand, there is a new sense of confidence and power on the part of coloured people. As more of them have acquired education and skill, they have felt able to compete with the white man in any field of activity. They are determined to gain control of their own countries, and manage their own destinies. The people of India demanded that the British leave, the Indonesians would no longer accept rule from the Dutch, the Filipinos from the Americans, or the Indo-Chinese from the French. The nationalist movements in Asia have thus been strongly influenced by the demand for racial recognition.

The white man cannot afford to deny this demand, since people with white skins number less than a third of mankind on this earth. An aroused and angry mood on the part of coloured people



Courtesy Miller Services

NATIVE WORKERS' HUTS ON A SOUTH AFRICAN ESTATE

could put the white minority in great danger. Nor is it just a question of being decent to Asians and Africans when we are in their continents. We must act the same way to people of different backgrounds in our own country. Every example of discrimination that happens here is fully reported, and probably exaggerated, in countries where many coloured people live. Such incidents keep up the sense of bitterness. White people must take the initiative in ending this bitterness. As one author put it, we must 'join the human race', of which we are only a small part.

In Asia this question is well on the way to solution, since imperial control by western countries is very nearly at an end. Suspicion of the West remains in areas like Indonesia and Iran but there is good reason to hope for steady improvement of relations in the future. In Africa, however, the situation is more uncertain; the 'Dark Continent' may well be one of the world's most serious trouble spots in another generation. Colonial rule still exists throughout much of Africa, but the population there is becoming increasingly self-conscious, and anxious to control their own affairs.

No single statement can sum up the complex situation in Africa. In some instances, as in the Belgian Congo, the native populations

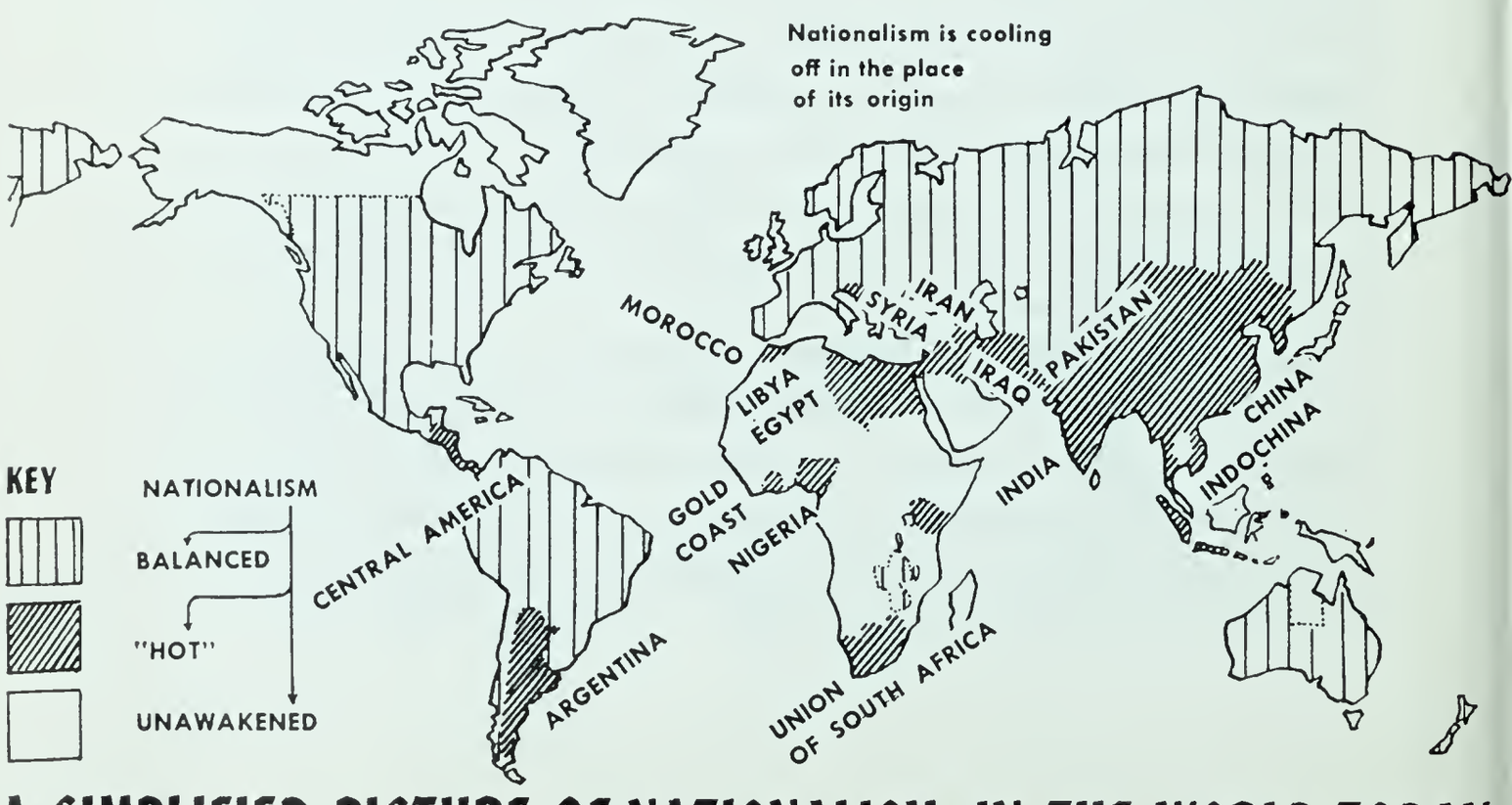
are thought by ruling European powers to be in so primitive a condition that there are no present plans for self-government. Elsewhere, as in Nigeria, and the Gold Coast, there are sufficient numbers of civilized and educated Africans to carry through a transfer from imperial to local control. The situation is easiest when there is no sizeable permanent settlement of white people, as in the last two countries named. In such cases colonial officials can work for the advancement of the natives, with the intention of leaving when the situation will allow them to do so. In Kenya, however, there are 30,000 settlers of European origin who have made permanent homes there. In addition there are 100,000 residents of Asian background. Finally, the native population numbers over 5,500,000. The Europeans do not feel safe unless they retain full control of the government. The resulting tensions have led to widespread murder and bloodshed by the Mau Mau bands and the inflaming of racial passions.

The most dangerous racial tensions exist in the Union of South Africa, which has the largest population of European origin to be found on the continent. The Afrikaners, the people of British origin, the Asians, Cape Coloured, and Africans are all suspicious of and antagonistic towards one another. At a time when the native populations have begun to hope for a better life, the government, under Afrikaner domination, has worsened rather than improved their lot, as we saw in Unit Seven. The Afrikaners have their own distinct way of life, which they believe is threatened by both the large African majority and by the British. But in their desperate efforts to protect themselves they have produced bitterness and hatred. Perhaps no part of the world has a more troubled future than the Union of South Africa.

(a) Strains Between Nations. Now let us turn to examine tensions or strains between nations. These may be associated with racial feeling, or may come from other sources. We may take it as a general rule that as long as there are independent, sovereign states, national tensions of varying degree will continue to exist. Nationalism too often seems to thrive on people feeling superior

to neighbouring countries. For some years it has been agreed that aggressive and narrow nationalism is one of the world's great dangers. Energetic efforts have been made to break down such nationalism by promoting international understanding and co-operation. The United Nations has been very active in this direction. Yet, by encouraging the desires of Asian and African peoples to free themselves from imperial rule, the U.N. has promoted national feeling in these quarters of the world. It might almost be true to say that nationalism is a fever which all people sooner or later insist upon having.

Among the older nation states there is undoubtedly some lessening of extreme nationalism. This has been most noticeable in Europe, the original home of nationalism. In Unit Nine we saw that important steps have been taken toward union among the countries of western Europe. These steps have been most effective on the economic level, with the European Coal and Steel Community being the outstanding accomplishment. Much remains to be done, however. Great Britain continues to remain aloof from the rest of Europe, largely because of her overseas ties with the Commonwealth, which make her somewhat different from other European lands. Most important of all, there is still a deep gulf of suspicion



A SIMPLIFIED PICTURE OF NATIONALISM IN THE WORLD TODAY

between France and Germany, based on centuries of conflict. Another centre of controversy is Trieste, where Italian and Yugoslavian interests clash. Eventually too, we may expect a revival of ill will between Poland and Germany, as the latter tries to regain territories lost to Poland after the Second World War. Nevertheless, the outlook is generally optimistic in western Europe for an increase of co-operation among the nations.

In Asia and Africa the situation is much less promising. Areas long under European domination have seized upon nationalism as the best weapon to use in throwing off the foreign oppressor. Native peoples become conscious of their own language, religion, social customs, and develop ambitions to form a distinctive nation of their own. An example of this tendency, one among many, was found in Indo-China during the struggle over French rule. Some Indo-Chinese people had learned to admire French civilization and to enjoy speaking the French language. But later they resolved not to use this language until French troops left their country. In many other places there has been a conscious rejection of western ways, and an emphasis on native traditions and customs. The result is an ardent nationalism that may be unwise and extreme. In Iran, for instance, the government expelled the British interests from the oil fields, even though the loss of their trade and knowledge was economically harmful to Iran. Yet national feeling often takes first place over economic advantage.

We may expect national tensions to exist in underdeveloped countries for many years to come, and they will also persist in the more prosperous parts of the world. National feeling in itself is not harmful, since pride in one's history, traditions and customs is natural and worthwhile. Such feeling becomes harmful when it leads to aggressive or suspicious attitudes towards neighbours, coupled with a sense of superiority over them. Such attitudes thrive on ignorance; they may also be fostered by selfish or ambitious groups. They can, however, be broken down by education, travel, and trade, and through the various activities of the United Nations.

3. The Problem of Opposing Ideologies

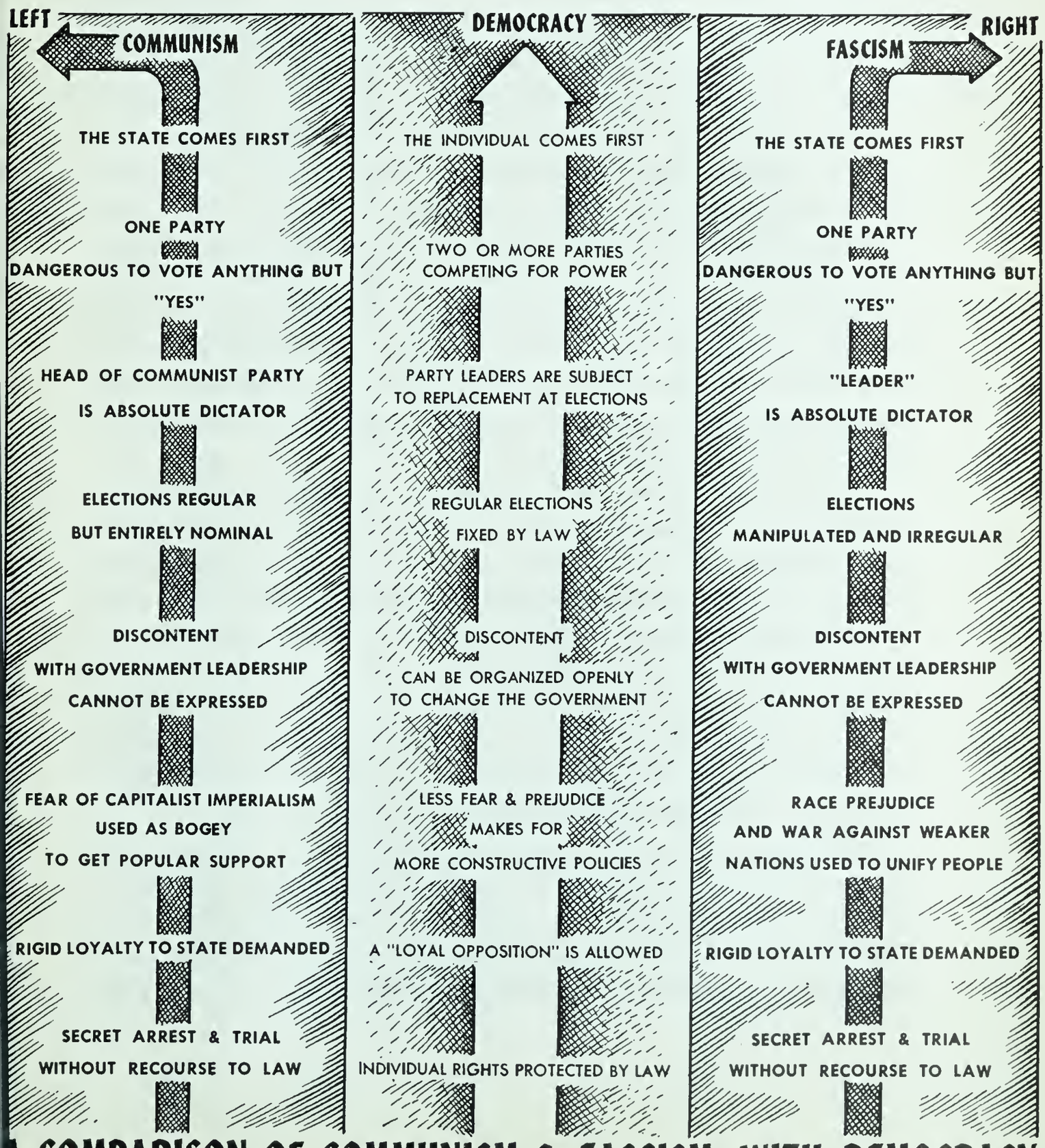
'Ideology' is a fairly new word, as far as common usage is concerned. The term refers to the arguments that are worked out to urge, defend and justify a certain outlook on life. The term also implies that those who accept an ideology believe in it without question, and are ready to live and die for it. There is a democratic ideology, a fascist ideology, and a communist ideology. Others might be mentioned, but these are the important ones for the world today. And so we should understand the differences betwen these ideologies, and why they are in conflict.

The outlines of 'democratic ideology' should be familiar to us, since it expresses our own outlook on life. Its basic feature is that government shall be controlled by the wishes of the people, as expressed through free and regular elections. Most adults must have the vote, and be free to vote against as well as for the government. Democracy thus requires active and competing political parties. It also stresses the importance of the individual, who is not to be sacrificed to the state. The individual has rights, under law, which must not be attacked by government. The citizen is loyal to the state, but he may also be loyal to his church, his trade union, his lodge, or his school. The state is not to require all his loyalty. 'Ideology' is, in fact, not a good word to connect with democracy, because the real democratic outlook is questioning and critical rather than conformist and passive.

The fascist ideology has little support in the world at the present moment. It had its largest following in the 1930's, when Hitler and Mussolini were at the height of their power. The crimes committed by these men and their followers destroyed most of the popular appeal of fascism, or nazism, as it was called in Germany. Fascist ideology stressed the idea of pure race, even though scientists have shown that pure races are seldom or never to be found. It also emphasized the role of the 'Leader' ('Duce', 'Fuehrer') to whom unquestioning obedience was due, and it glorified war as the highest activity of man. Only one political party was allowed; all

others were outlawed. All sides of national life were brought under the control of the state. Passive obedience to fascism was not enough; the citizen must openly and positively assert the glories of the Leader and the Party.

Communist ideology has some similarities to fascism. There is the same emphasis on the power of the state, on rule by a single



A COMPARISON OF COMMUNISM & FASCISM WITH DEMOCRACY

party, and on unquestioning active support by the whole population. The name 'totalitarian' has indeed been given to both communism and fascism to describe their all-embracing control over every aspect of life. Communists have, however, placed most emphasis on bringing economic life wholly under government ownership and control. Another professed aim of communism is a 'classless society', although, in fact, social classes and differences are to be found in communist countries quite as much as elsewhere.

After communism won its first success in the Russian Revolution of 1917, the leaders of the Soviet Union felt themselves to be surrounded by a hostile capitalist world. Their suspicions seemed to be justified when Hitler attacked Russia in 1941. After many bitter battles the Red Army was victorious on the eastern front, bringing Soviet power into Central Europe in 1945. Soviet leaders now determined to achieve security on their frontiers by establishing friendly, that is, communist governments in the countries to the west of the Soviet Union. The powerful Red Army was actually the decisive factor in establishing and maintaining these governments. No country has ever adopted communism as a result of a free and honest election.

Nevertheless, communism has had a wide appeal in many areas. In several countries of western Europe, notably in France and Italy, many millions of voters have supported the Communist Party, as a means of expressing discontent with conditions in their own land. For wherever living standards are low, and there are great contrasts of poverty and wealth, there is an opportunity for communism. Yet its greatest successes outside Russia have been in Asia, and especially in China. The communists gained control of that country in 1949, largely because of widespread dissatisfaction with the inefficient government of Chiang Kai-Shek.

It is important to understand the appeal of communism in many parts of Asia. Throughout that vast continent there has been a rising revolt against western colonialism and imperialism, as we have noticed earlier. The communists, working through native leaders, have promised to aid in this revolt. They have also prom-

ised to end the landlord's grasp on the farmland, and redivide it, a cherished hope of the Asian masses. The communists can say that Russia was also an underdeveloped country in 1917, but became a mighty industrial power in the following generation. These and other claims have a great appeal to discontented people who know little of the outside world and the full story of Russian growth.

In other words, the strength of communism in Asia, and elsewhere in the world, has not rested solely or even mainly in its military power. It has set out to capture men's minds and loyalties by associating itself with nationalist movements and by promising better living conditions for poverty-ridden people. It is possible to show that its claims are false, but it is far more important to convince desperate people that there is a better way than communism offers. In particular, communism cannot be beaten just by armed force, although that may sometimes be necessary, as in the case of Korea. Economic aid, policies based on racial equality, sympathy for national hopes, and an end of colonialism are the surest ways to turn men's minds away from communism. A positive constructive outlook rather than just a negative fear is indeed the best weapon to use against communism.

The conflict of ideologies has serious effects on the conduct of international relations. Since the democratic and communist nations have such fundamentally different outlooks, it is difficult for them to reach agreement, or even to agree to disagree. Each side believes the other is intent upon conquering the world. Each side is constantly trying to win over the parts of the world that have not definitely declared for either. The result is a never-ending barrage of propaganda. Diplomatic conferences become contests in influencing world opinion, instead of genuine efforts to settle differences. This has been especially evident at the United Nations. In particular, the Security Council, as we noticed in Unit Eleven, has declined in effectiveness because of disagreements between the Soviet Union and the democratic, western Great Powers. Desire for prestige, in fact, has been greater than determination to solve

world problems. Where there is little common ground, and no mutual confidence, it is difficult for negotiations to be successful.

4. Man Himself and World Affairs

(a) Human Failings that Affect the World Scene. Many profound thinkers believe that certain defects in human nature make up one of the world's greatest and most insoluble problems. 'Know Thyself' was the advice of the Greek philosophers, and we should try to follow it at the present time. Only if we have a realistic view of human nature can we understand many of our world's problems.

Human beings, as we know from our own experience, are a strange mixture of virtues and vices, and this mixture is reflected on the world scene. In varying degrees we all can be intelligent, hard-working, sympathetic and generous. We have a tendency to be hopeful, patient, law-abiding and merciful. All of us falter at times, but peoples around the world have shown these qualities with a fair record of consistency. It would be tempting to say more about the good qualities that mankind can claim, but our concern here is with problems and hence with human failings.

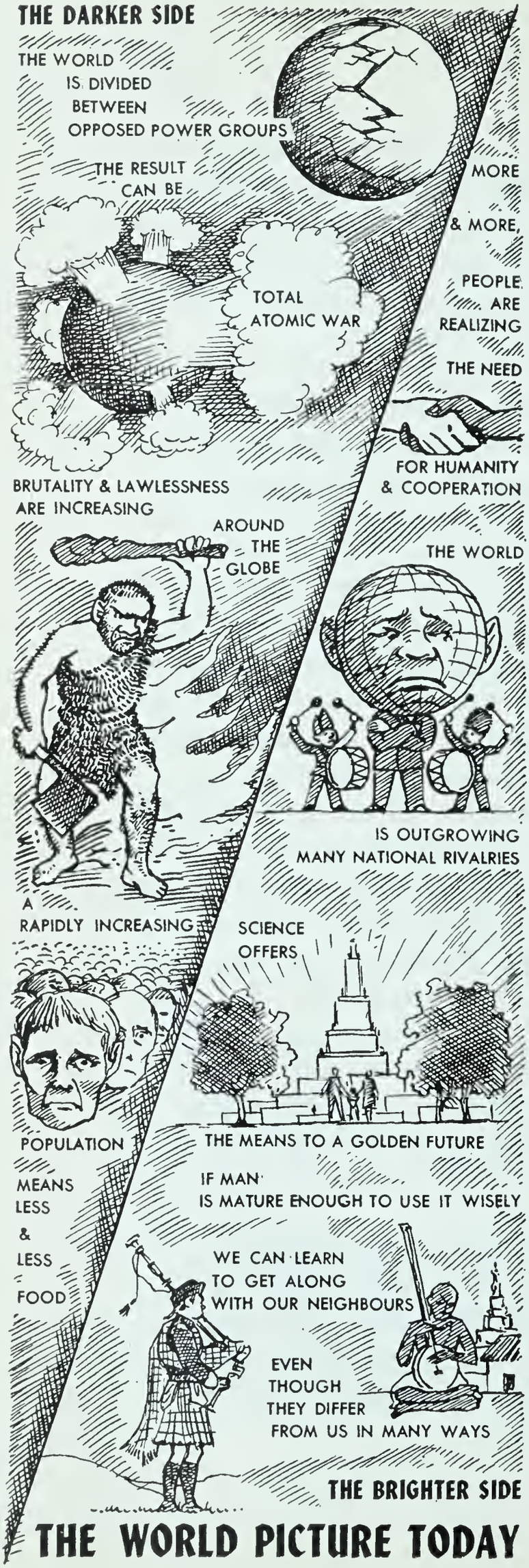
Among these failings which affect international affairs an important one is narrowness of outlook. We are understandably concerned with events on our own street or in our farming neighbourhood ahead of those in our town or country. Our own province is more real to us than the country as a whole. Beyond the borders of Canada we feel closest to countries where English is spoken. All this leads to a certain lack of sympathy and understanding with distant people and events. Think of the news we read: does not an accident close to home, that results in one or two injuries, win more of our attention than an earthquake or flood in a far-away place that may destroy thousands of lives? It is right that we should take an interest in our own community, but it is also

important to remember that events on the other side of the world can have a direct and even immediate effect on our own lives. If the phrase 'One World' means anything, it means that we must broaden our sympathies to think of peoples as neighbours who may speak a different language, believe in a different religion, and have entirely different customs from our own.

Closely connected with our narrowness of outlook is a lack of interest in public affairs. For most people, family matters, entertainment and sport and other close-to-home interests mean much more than anything concerned with government or international relations. We often fail to keep ourselves informed, or even to vote. Yet when mistakes are made or danger comes, there is a tendency to blame the politicians as unworthy and inadequate. In democratic countries people get as good leadership as they deserve, often better than they deserve. If it is sometimes felt that selfish or special interests have too much influence on government, it is largely because the public is not watchful and informed. In international affairs, the lack of knowledge is especially dangerous.

It may be, however, that our greatest defect in international affairs is a tendency to be unreasonable and emotional. We begin by being suspicious of 'foreigners'. We assume that our people and our side are always right, and the other side always wrong. We are stubborn and unreasonable. (Please remember that 'we' here means 'we human beings', not just 'we Canadians'!) Throughout history men have often turned to violence rather than seek solutions based on reason and good sense. War has sometimes been the easy way out of a difficult problem; it is simpler to beat the drums against a 'wicked' enemy than to do some hard thinking. In truth, it has frequently been said that men will go to any lengths to avoid hard thinking.

Finally, we may note the aggressive instinct to be found in most human beings. Sometimes this is simply a healthy sense of competition, that keeps us alert and active. Very often, however, there is a desire to dominate others. In international affairs, this takes the form of a struggle for power among nations. The people



of one nation build up its power for the sake of influencing and even controlling the people of other nations. Each nation feels its motives to be defensive, and those of others to be aggressive. Many optimistic people hoped that conflicts among nations would cease when the United Nations was set up, but in fact they have not. The network of international organizations and activities described in Unit Eleven may do something to temper this struggle, but an instinct to dominate seems to be ingrained in human nature. The great task is to direct this instinct into healthy and constructive channels.

(b) The Way Ahead. It is possible to be very gloomy about the present state of international relations. Despite all trends towards unity, the world is divided into two hostile combinations of nations. The differences between the communist and democratic countries seem irreconcilable. Everyone knows that a war in which hydrogen bombs were used would probably end civilization, yet it is apparently impossible to achieve real peace and understanding among the nations. In much of the world, and

not just the communist part, there appears to be a greater disregard for human rights than modern history has ever seen before. Moreover, many of the people in underveloped countries live in a state of malnutrition or semi-starvation that promises to get worse instead of better in the years to come.

Nevertheless, it would be very shortsighted to concentrate only on the pessimistic side of the picture. There are many hopeful aspects in the present world scene. The narrow nationalism of an earlier day is breaking down. International co-operation among the free nations is greater than ever before. Much more is known of the causes of world tensions, than in the past, and constructive work is being done to end them. The various programmes of technical aid to underdeveloped countries are an example of something new under the sun. Modern science has not only given us horrible weapons of destruction, but has also opened up vast opportunities to expand production and promote human welfare to a most wonderful extent.

Furthermore, it is important not to be disheartened by the ideological struggles that seem so endless and frustrating. Struggles of this sort are not new. During the sixteenth century Christian Europe lived under a constant threat of Moslem Turkish invasion. That century and the following one saw a prolonged series of religious wars between Catholics and Protestants. But these struggles finally ended when the contestants decided to co-exist peacefully side by side, to agree to disagree on a live-and-let-live basis. Such an outcome may be the solution of current ideological struggles. The democratic nations are awake to their danger, and are co-operating to protect themselves. If they are both resolute and patient, they can face the future with good cheer.

In conclusion, then, we need to acquire a balanced and realistic view of world affairs that avoids the excesses of easy optimism or empty pessimism. Some international problems are not easily solved; some may be very nearly insoluble. And if they are solved, other problems will replace them. As long as there are human beings there will be problems; life would be dull without them.

Our best reliance will be on accurate information and sympathetic understanding of ourselves and others. And by these means the world may find a brighter way ahead.

Learn by Doing

1. Discuss the reasons for Canada enjoying a higher standard of living than the underdeveloped countries of the world. (1, a)
2. "The population of the world has doubled in the last century. Over-crowding may have tragic consequences." Form committees to discuss this problem and report their conclusions to the class. (1, a)
3. Prepare a graph showing the percentage of land suitable for agriculture in each of the continents. (1, b)
4. "The improvement of living standards in other countries of the world would increase Canada's prosperity as well." Discuss this statement. (1, b)
5. "The most serious aspect of the racial question is the attitude of the white man towards the black, brown and yellow man." Discuss race prejudice in the school or community. (2, a)
6. Have committees prepare explanations for the class of each of the following ideologies: (a) democratic; (b) fascist; (c) communist.
7. Collect from newspaper reports examples of man's virtues and vices. Discuss these in class. (4, a)

Facts to Know

1. List ten countries of the world under each of the following classifications: (a) highly developed; (b) intermediate; (c) underdeveloped. (1, a)
2. In what ways are the attitudes of the peoples in the underdeveloped areas changing? (1, a)
3. What are the factors necessary in order that a country be prosperous? (1, a)
4. (a) What are the main problems which the farmers of the underdeveloped countries face? (1, b)

(b) Describe the different methods being used to solve these problems by the communist and western worlds.

5. Why does the exporting of food or raw materials not help very greatly to improve the standard of living of underdeveloped countries? (1, b)
6. (a) Why are the countries with low standards of living becoming interested in industrialization?

   (b) What are some of the obstacles to industrialization in these countries? (1, b)
7. Why are political changes necessary in many underdeveloped countries if the standard of living is to be improved? (1, b)
8. Outline briefly the racial problem in South Africa. (2, a)
9. What is meant by the word 'ideology'?
10. Why has communism gained a strong hold in Asia? (3)
11. List some of the most common defects in human nature which tend to create problems. (4, a)

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INDEX

Afghanistan, 240, 242, 244
Africa, 16, 18, 75, 99, 240-76, 452-3
Afrikans, 271, 453
Agrarian reforms, 445-6
Agriculture, 48, 51, 54-5, 60
Alaska, 169-70
Alexander the Great, 245
American Revolution, 106, 118
Antarctica, 57
Arabs, 91-3, 208, 253-9, 263, 376
Architecture, 216-7
Argentina, 184
Aristotle, 87
Arctic Ocean, 57-8
Asia, 16, 17, 18, 21, 104, 107, 323-66;
—geography and people, 329-34;
—life and work, 334-41;
—climate, 338-40;
—ancient, 341-2;
—and the West, 346-52
Atlantic Ocean, 123, 126, 196-7
Atomic Energy, 7, 12-3, 19, 163-4
Australia, 76, 184
Austria, 230

Babylon, 80, 244
Balfour Report, 171-2
Baldwin, Robert, 119
Barbarians, 89-90
Belgium, 99, 184
Bell, Alexander Graham, 220
Benelux, 234
Benz, 221
Beria, 307
Berlin, 230-1
British North America Act, 121, 148, 152
Borden, Sir Robert, 171
Burma, 106, 327, 356

Cabot, John, 196
Calvin, John, 213
Canada:
—people, 118, 124, 131-2;
—geography, 124-131;
—economy, 124, 126-31;
—industry, 130-1;
—settlement and immigration, 118, 121, 124, 131-6;
—culture, 137-47;
—system of government, 147-55;
—trade, 3, 4, 13-16, 130-1, 163, 395-6;
—and U.S., 12, 15, 118, 119, 120, 123, 138-40, 162, 165-6, 180;
—and external affairs, 4, 123, 160-92;
—and Korea, 17;
—and Commonwealth, 18, 118, 119-20, 123, 156, 164-5, 433;
—and U.N., 117, 177, 180-2, 186-8, 416-8;
—and responsible government, 119-20;
—and the Arctic, 280-90;
—and Asia, 323-66;
—and World War I, 123-135
—and League of Nations, 123;
—and World War II, 130, 175-7;
—and NATO, 181, 432;
—and Europe, 195-8;
—and Africa, 240-76;
—and world organization, 405-34
Cartier, Jacques, 196
Celts, 207
Ceylon, 324, 330-1
Chile, 185
Chiang Kai-Shek, 328, 359, 458
China, 17, 83-5, 100, 108, 222, 328, 333, 341-3, 348-9, 359-63, 365
Churchill, Sir Winston, 20, 227
Christianity, 88-9, 91, 299-301
Colombo Plan, 18, 185, 324, 363
Colonization, 97

Columbus, Christopher, 96
Communications, 4-5, 10-11, 20
Communism, 4, 16-7, 156, 230, 302-9, 350-63, 457-60
Confucius, 84
Council of Europe, 234
Crusades, 93, 96
Cuba, 185

Da Gama, Vasco, 346
Darwin, Charles, 218
DaVinci, Leonardo, 219
Deserts, 58-9
Diesel, Rudolf, 222

Earth, formation of, 31-4
East India Company, 348
Edison, Thomas, 220
Egypt, 77-8, 222, 245
Einstein, Albert, 220
Electricity, 62
Eskimos, 58, 282
Eurasia, 74-5
Europe:
—geography, 198-207;
—peoples, 207-9;
—languages, 209-10;
—countries, 210-1;
—culture, 211-16;
—science, 216-23;
—government, 223-5
Exploration, 96-7, 264-5, 282-6

Faraday, Michael, 221
Fascism, 456
Feudalism, 104
Finance, 388-92
France, 6, 17, 105, 108, 109, 118, 227-8, 230; and Germany, 231-2; and Africa, 259, 266, 455
Franklin, Sir John, 280
French Revolution, 106, 223

Galileo, 218
Gandhi, Mohandas, 355
Geography, 41-66
Germany, 6, 12, 17, 72-3, 99, 109, 228-9, 455
Gibraltar, 240
Goethe, 215
Good Neighbour Policy, 432
Great Britain, 10, 15, 53, 99-104, 109, 119-20, 123, 162, 180, 223, 226-7, 266
Greece, 17, 85-7, 103, 216, 219, 223, 376

Hague Tribunal, 409
Hitler, Adolph, 108, 174
Howe, Joseph, 119
Hudson's Bay Company, 121, 282

Imperialism, 98-102
Imperial War Cabinet, 170
India, 18, 74, 81-3, 97, 108, 185, 223, 324, 328, 330, 343, 346-8, 353-4
Indo-China, 17, 108-9, 357
Indonesia, 108, 328, 358
Industrial Revolution, 13, 97, 221, 379, 446-7
Iran, 259-60
Ireland, 184
Israel, 108, 257-9, 263
Italy, 6, 17, 100, 230

Japan, 6, 12, 17, 100, 107, 183, 327-8, 333, 349
Jesus Christ, 88-9
Jinnah, Ali, 355
Joan of Arc, 105

Kemal, Mustafa, 251-2
King, Mackenzie, 171, 173, 174
Knox, John, 213
Koran, 254
Korea, 17, 328, 361-3

Latin America, 107
Laurier, Sir Wilfrid, 121, 169
League of Nations, 6, 170-1, 173-4, 177, 232, 255, 410-2
Lenin, 302-4
Life, on earth; beginning of, 34-5
Livingstone, David, 264-5
Luther, 213

Macdonald, Sir John, 120, 121
Mackenzie, Alexander, 283

Magellan, 96
Magna Carta, 104
Malan, Dr., 272
Malenkov, 307-8
Man, 29-30:
—prehistoric, 35-8;
—development, 38-40;
—and environment, 41-57, 69-71
Manchuria, 411
Manufacturing, 13, 61-2
Marco Polo, 247
Marshall Plan, 233-4, 393-4
Marx, Karl, 308-9
Mau Mau, 275
Mecca, 246, 254
Mexico, 185
Middle Ages, 91-4, 219
Middle East, 240-64
Migrations, 19-20, 73-7, 91-3, 98, 109, 111, 207-8
Mining, 48-9, 56-7, 63
Minoan civilization, 85-6
Mohammed, 91-2, 254-5
Mongoloid peoples, 70-1, 77, 207
Moses, 246, 255
Moslems, 91-3, 246, 345, 355, 377
Mossadegh, 260
Mozart, 215
Mussolini, 108

Napoleon, 106, 408
Nationalism, 102-9, 224, 229-30;
—in North Africa, 250-2;
—in Middle East, 250-3;
—in South Africa, 271-6;
—in Asia, 352-61, 365-6
NATO, 9, 18, 181, 185, 235, 324, 399, 426-30
Negroes, 21, 75
Negroid peoples, 21, 71, 75, 76
Netherlands, 184
New France, 118, 132-4, 141-4
Newton, Isaac, 218
New Zealand, 75, 184
Nigeria, 274-5
Nile River, 249
Norsemen, 208-9
North Africa, 240-64

Pakistan, 18, 108, 185, 242, 244, 324, 330, 356
Palestine, 88, 257-9
Papineau, Joseph, 119
Parliament, 104
Pasteur, Louis, 218-9
Peary, Robert, 284
Persia, 80-1, 88, 244
Peter the Great, 301
Petroleum, 62-3
Peru, 185
Plato, 87
Poles, 207
Population, 16, 57, 59, 69, 98, 442-4
Portugal, 106, 346-7
Poverty, 439-42
Propaganda, 20
Puritanism, 213

Races and racism, 70-3, 270-1, 450-3
Rainfall, 43-5
Rebellion of 1837, 119
Reformation, 213
Religion:
—in Asia, 343-6
—in Canada, 142-3, 214;
—in Europe, 213-5;
—and Communism, 230
Renaissance, 96, 219
Rhodesia, 273-4
Rome, 87-9, 216, 222, 376-7
Rousseau, Jean, 215
Russia, 100, 199-201

Saar, 232
Sahara Desert, 243
St. Laurent, Louis, 179, 235, 323-4
St. Lawrence River, 125, 127
Schuman Plan, 234
Shakespeare, William, 215
Siberia, 293
Slavs, 207
Socrates, 87
Soil, 47-8
Solar system, 27-8
Spain, 105
Stalin, 304-7
Statute of Westminster, 172
Suez Canal, 256-7, 263
Switzerland, 223-4

Tariffs, 384-8
Tibet, 328
Timber, 49, 55
Tolstoi, Leo, 296-7
Trade, 64-5, 97, 100, 370-403
Treaty of Versailles, 170
Trieste, 233
Trotsky, 304-5
Truman, Harry, 336
Turkey, 93, 207-8, 251-3

USSR, 7, 8, 9, 17, 62, 109, 290-319, 425-6, 431, 458;
—geography, 291-5;
—people, 295-6;
—culture, 296-7;
—industrial revolution, 297-8;
—under the Czars, 298-302
—Communism, 302-9;
—government today, 310-4;
—modern expansion, 316-9
United Empire Loyalists, 118, 133
United Nations, 5, 7, 17, 22, 103, 109, 177, 260, 412-25
UNESCO, 422-4
UNRRA, 7
United States, 3, 6, 8, 9, 15, 17, 19, 66, 106, 110, 359, 392-5
Uranium, 63

Vegetation, 45-7
Viet Minh, 357
Viet Nam, 357
Vikings, 90, 195-6
Virgil, 88

Wars:
—Hundred Years' War, 105;
—Russo-Japanese War, 102, 302;
—South African War, 168-9;
—War of 1812, 119, 133
—World War I, 5, 108, 123, 170, 210, 389-90, 410
—World War II, 3-4, 6-7, 12, 17, 108, 174, 176-7, 210-1, 228, 350, 405
Watt, James, 220
West Germany, 185, 229
World government, 405-8

Yugoslavia, 309

Zionism, 257

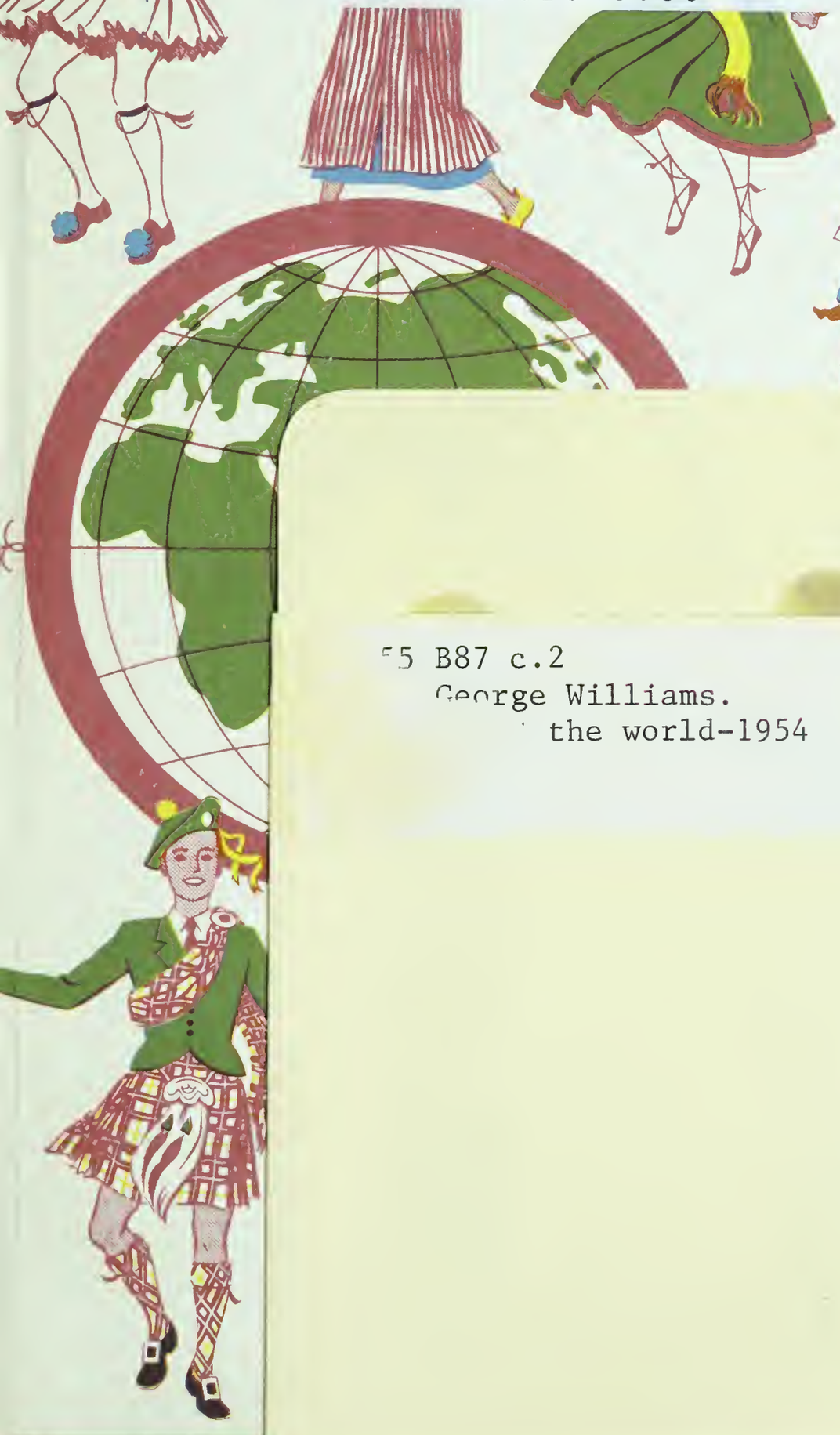


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